

The Outlook

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PERU

Conditions in Latin America grew grave last week. This was not true of those countries far to the south, Argentina and Chile, the strongholds of increasing political serenity; but it was true of countries close to us, of Mexico and Haiti, while in troubled Venezuela the results of the recent Castro outbreak were given as sufficient reason for not holding the elections. In Ecuador there is unrest, and now in Peru—formerly the most important of the Spanish viceroalties—a sudden outbreak has resulted not only in the killing of the Prime Minister and about fifty other Peruvians, but also in the imprisonment of President Guillermo Billinghurst and the establishment of a new Government.

The cause of the Peruvian revolution is declared to be Señor Billinghurst's alleged conspiracy against the Constitution by his attempt to dissolve Congress. Ever since his election President Billinghurst has attempted to stop the waste of public funds and to institute economical policies. He thus created immediate opposition, just as a similar course always does anywhere, but particularly in certain countries of Latin America.

Last July President Billinghurst prepared a budget along economical lines. Congress refused to sanction it. The President waited until December. He then issued a decree declaring that the budget was operative and would remain in force until the end of 1914. Meanwhile he was receiving petitions from many of the Peruvian provinces asking him to dissolve Congress. Last week, according to statements made by the revolutionists, he decided upon this high-handed course. Whereupon the members of Congress met under the Presidency of Señor Carlos Leguía, the brother of ex-President Leguía, who had to flee from Peru recently, to consider what should be done. The members decided to undertake the defense of the Constitution, as they interpreted it, and then intrusted power

to Dr. Augusto Durand, who had led the Peruvian revolutions of 1908 against President Pardo and of 1909 against President Leguía. Extremes would thus seem to have met when a Durand and a Leguía touched hands! The members asked the support of the army. With visions of more liberal dealings, the soldiers immediately responded and went to the palace to ask the President to resign. The tumult followed. Parliament has now met in extraordinary session and has decided to name a Governing Board pending provisions for a new election.

PRESIDENT BILLINGHURST

Guillermo (or William) Billinghurst is the son of an English father and a Peruvian mother. He was educated in the schools of Peru, Chile, and Argentina. He showed great ability everywhere. In his younger years he wrote several books. He entered political life as Secretary of his native province of Iquique. Later he was elected to the lower house of the Peruvian Parliament.

At the beginning of the war between Chile and Peru (1879) he organized the Peruvian Red Cross. He commanded one of the divisions of the Peruvian army and did gallant service, though the outcome of the war was a triumph for Chile. The Peruvian Government assigned Señor Billinghurst to co-operate with the Chilean Government in the reconstruction of the province. In this task he won the admiration of both Governments and was asked to remain in Iquique as Peruvian Consul-General. There he did much to heal the wounds caused by the war.

He later became Mayor of Lima, the Peruvian capital, where he made notable reforms in the city's sanitary condition. He was elected to Congress. After his service there he was elected Vice-President, and later President (May, 1912). He has made a notable President. As to the condition of the country, his Message of November

last seemed to show a marked advance in prosperity.

PRESIDENT WILSON AND PERU

If the revolution in Peru means merely the establishment of a military despotism, as opposed to the kind of civil government which President Billingshurst has been trying to give to it, even although he may have been high-handed in his manner, our own Government will withhold its recognition if it follows the broad policy laid down in his recent Mobile address by President Wilson. A despotic tendency is indicated by the fact that the semi-official administration organs of Lima, the "*Nacion*," the "*Accion*," and the "*Popular*," have been suppressed.

At all events, Peru now affords a peculiarly interesting test of President Wilson's doctrine with regard to Latin-American revolutions.

The whole affair may seem disheartening to friends of Latin-American progress: it may give color to the view expressed by Professor Ross, of the University of Wisconsin, who is now traveling in South America, to a reporter of the Buenos Aires "*Herald*," namely, that "the alleged democracy of the west coast republics is of the sham variety." We have been loth to believe that of Peru. We do not believe it of Chile.

PRESIDENT WILSON AND THE MEXICAN EMBARGO

Last week President Wilson did what he had long been urged to do—he raised the embargo on the export from this country into Mexico of arms and munitions of war.

In March, 1912, Congress, by joint resolution, authorized the President to suspend that exportation. As President Wilson says in his statement accompanying the Executive Order of last week, this was a "well-considered" resolution. But it was determined upon under sporadic conditions. They have now ceased to exist. The President explains the embargo:

It was intended to discourage incipient revolts against the regularly constituted authorities of Mexico. Since that order was issued the circumstances of the case have undergone a radical change. There is now no constitutional government in Mexico, and the existence of this order hinders and delays the very thing the Government of the United States is now insisting upon, namely, that Mexico shall be left free to settle her own affairs and, as soon as possible, put them upon a constitutional footing by her

own force and counsel. The order is therefore rescinded.

President Wilson's action marks the third stage of his policy in regard to the sending of arms into Mexico. (1) From his inauguration until July Mr. Wilson followed the course of the Taft Administration and permitted the Huerta Government to import from the United States all the arms it desired, though he had not recognized the Huerta Government. (2) Then, however, in a Message to Congress, Mr. Wilson announced that both sides were to be treated alike and that the exportation of arms from this country into Mexico for the use of either side would be prohibited. (3) Now he announces that the embargo is to be removed.

Normal conditions are thus restored. Though, technically speaking, General Huerta may be receiving equal treatment by the raising of the embargo, General Carranza will really receive more immediate and more widespread benefit.

Thus, with the embargo removed, the Huerta and Carranza forces will be on a more equal footing. Thousands of men in northern Mexico cannot join the revolutionary army because no arms have been available. The lifting of the embargo will equip large bodies of men to reinforce troops already operating against Huerta. Hence the net result of President Wilson's action may be said to favor the revolutionists at the expense of the Huerta forces.

HOW THE NEWS WAS RECEIVED

The news was received by General Huerta with a reserve which becomes him better than anything he has so far done or left undone. He indicated that Mr. Wilson's action would not affect in any way his own attitude to the United States or towards Americans in Mexico. His supporters, however, were more outspoken. In general, their opinion was to the effect that President Wilson's action indicated a final and frank admission of his hitherto secret friendship for the revolutionists. Some of the Mexican papers went still further and called Mr. Wilson the "exponent of commercialism" and "the accomplice of bandits."

On the other hand, the news was received by the revolutionists with delight, of course, and immediately they began importing arms. There was a large supply of army rifles and rifle ammunition at hand to draw from at

New Orleans and near-by towns, besides machine guns, army **revolvers**, cartridge belts, holsters, canteens, and saddles.

The news was received by the press of this country and Europe with rather mixed emotions and opinions. Most papers seem to agree that the revolutionists have earned the right to be considered as such and not as mere marauders; that the ferocity and bloodshed in Mexico would now, for a short time, anyway, be ghastlier than ever; that to drive out Huerta is the first step to peace; but that, even with him driven out, we should need ultimately to intervene, either singly or with other powers, and that then we might find some of the very arms we were now allowing to go from here used against ourselves.

Meanwhile it should be remembered that the United States is responsible for the protection of its own citizens and the citizens of Europe resident in Mexico; and that its responsibility is not diminished by the lifting of the embargo.

HAITI

Conditions in Haiti continue chaotic. Half a dozen aspirants for the Presidency are pitted against each other. The people are represented by a National Assembly, of which the lower house is the Chamber of Communes and is supposed to be chosen by direct popular vote. The upper house is a Senate chosen by the Chamber from a list made out partly by the President of the Republic and partly by the electors. According to the Constitution of Haiti, in case of the death, resignation, or disability of the Executive, his functions are vested in the Secretaries of State until the joint meeting of the two houses of the National Assembly. The meeting must take place within ten days of the declared vacancy of the Presidential office.

On another page are pictures of the "regular" Haitian troops. In addition to levies on them the aspirants for the Presidency have impressed into their service every able-bodied man they could find. At the news of this enforced conscription the laborers in the coffee and cotton fields fled to the mountains. This is not surprising. The old-fashioned method of impressment still obtains in Haiti--this is to catch your man, tie him naked to a tree, and leave him in the hot sun. He generally ends by consenting to conscription!

It would seem as if Senator Théodore, one of the aspirants, had received a decided

setback in his battling with the Zamor brothers at Les Gonaïves, an important town on the bay of that name. Following this victory, General Oreste Zamor has asked permission from the local authorities of Port-au-Prince to enter that city, his purpose being to establish a provisional government and to await the National Assembly's decision.

Meanwhile our gunboat Nashville, in the harbor of Cape Haïtien, to which place Théodore has returned, is maintaining order in the important city of that name. It is about eighty-five miles from Port-au-Prince and lies on the north coast of the island. Port-au-Prince has a population of nearly a hundred thousand despite its marshy vicinity and unhealthy climate.

These names are reminders that Haiti was formerly a French colony. The language of the country is still a debased dialect known as Creole French. The majority of Haitians are Negroes, but there is also an immense number of mulattoes, descendants of the former French settlers. Between these two elements barbaric warfare has always been maintained. It is interesting to note in this connection that the recent Haitian Presidents have been alternately a mulatto and a black.

THE CHINESE PARLIAMENT

The attempt to summon the reserve members of the Chinese Parliament has not been sufficiently successful to reorganize that body. The reason has been the fact that some of the reserve members were found to belong to the Kuomintang, or Nationalist party, whose members were expelled from Parliament; another reason, the fact that some of the reserve members have now become office-holders; and another, that many of them were found absent from their election districts. Hence Parliament has been definitely dissolved.

Meanwhile the business of the country is carried on by the President acting with the Administrative Council of seventy-one members recently appointed by him, namely, two representatives from each province, four Cabinet Ministers, a representative official from each Ministry, and eight members of the Presidential secretariat.

But this is not all. Aside from Parliament, there are provincial and district councils or assemblies. In each province there is a provincial assembly. It consists of a minimum of fifty members and a maximum of a

hundred, according to the population of the province. It has power to enact laws applying only to the respective provinces and not conflicting with national legislation. It also controls the provincial budgets, ordains the method of collecting provincial taxes, and controls the issue of provincial loans.

In each province there are district councils. They consist of the chief official of the province, assisted by certain administrative officials of the province and by members elected by ballot.

A despatch just at hand announces that President Yuan Shi-kai has decreed the dissolution of the district councils, on the ground that they "interfere with the Administration and that the councilors intrigue with the rebels." This seems only the act of a despot. Certainly it is another important step in the suppression of popular government in China. There would indeed be nothing left to do in this direction but to disperse the provincial assemblies!

The Chinese Parliament was in some respects a laughing-stock. Perhaps the district councils have also been rather ridiculous from the standpoint of "the strong man of China." But to dissolve both is certainly strong medicine.

At the moment China needs a strong government—even a dictatorial government—more than she needs a popular government. The government must be popular if possible, but strong under any circumstances.

THE RED CROSS IN CHINA

During the past five years the American Red Cross has spent about a million dollars for the relief of flood sufferers in China. These sufferers have been mostly the victims of the Hwai River. The Hwai flows through the central provinces of Honan and Nganhwei and empties into Lake Hungtse, northwest of Shanghai. For the greater part of its length this river runs between banks elevated above the surrounding country. If the river bursts these bounds, it can overnight change the geography of a whole province.

As one of the duties of the American Red Cross, imposed by act of Congress in its charter, is, if possible, to prevent disasters, some years ago an engineer was sent to China by the Red Cross to study the floods which have caused the great famines in China. The result was a suggestion by

the Red Cross to the Chinese Government that, instead of spending vast sums every year to relieve the suffering caused by the floods, the river should be kept within its banks. The Red Cross suggested a project for dredging and digging, for construction of dams and reservoirs, for impounding the surplus waters of the river, and for the diversion of the streams that in time of floods increase the burden; finally, the Red Cross showed that many thousand square miles of land might be reclaimed, irrigated, and rented.

The Chinese thought well of this intelligent proposal, and the predominance of the humanitarian feature enabled the Government to offer to turn the whole affair over to the Red Cross. The Government definitely named the Red Cross as its agent, and our own Government has acquiesced in the entrance of American engineers into China.

The whole enterprise now depends upon the Chinese Government's ability to find a market for the bond issue to cover the expense of the undertaking. The Chinese Government hopes to dispose of about twenty million dollars' worth of bonds. It would pay the interest and eventually the principal itself from the taxes to be levied on the lands of the flood district, and also from rentals and sale of reclaimed lands.

Of course the American Red Cross is not a "business body" in the commercial sense, and it will only use its good offices as a friend of China to arrange to have this important work accomplished in the best manner possible. The Red Cross has no selfish or ulterior motives to serve in accomplishing this great work.

THE END OF THE PINDELL INCIDENT

With Mr. Henry M. Pindell's declination of the Ambassadorship to Russia, there has been brought to its close an incident of no great credit to the United States. What other great country would act as this country has done with regard to so important an office?

When it first became known that the President intended to appoint Mr. Pindell, a letter purporting to have been written by Senator Lewis, of Illinois, was published, which urged Mr. Pindell to accept on the ground that he need serve for less than a year, that he would have no diplomatic matters to attend to, that he would have the attendant delights of trips

to European capitals, and that the social honor and prestige of the position would be shared by his family. Though this letter has been disowned by Senator Lewis, and declared to be a garbled version of the true correspondence, the denial lacked the weight it would have had if the true version had been given to the public and shown to be essentially different. What, however, cannot be denied is that Mr. Bryan, in a statement defending Mr. Pindell's appointment, declared that it was offered with the understanding that it might be accepted for as long as he could afford to leave his business—the conducting of a newspaper in Peoria. Thus the Russian Ambassadorship, one of the most responsible positions to which a man can be called, was treated by the Secretary of State as a stop-gap, an incident in an editor's life. That this should be the view of the diplomatic service held by the Secretary of State is, to say the least, disturbing to those who have been jealous for the good name of the United States among civilized peoples.

Naturally the appointment of Mr. Pindell was closely scrutinized by Senators. If any evidence was forthcoming that Mr. Pindell was equipped for such a post, and that his selection was due, not to the effort to pay a political debt, but to secure in St. Petersburg the most skillful, intelligent, and highly trained diplomatic representative obtainable, it has not been made public.

What it was that finally induced the Senate to confirm the appointment we do not know; but it is significant that as soon as the confirmation was announced Mr. Pindell sent a letter to the President declining the appointment on the ground that it would be an embarrassment to the Administration. We are loth to believe what has been intimated, that Mr. Pindell's confirmation was carried through with the understanding that he would decline, and with the purpose of vindicating him. Mr. Pindell himself needed no vindication. His part in the whole affair seems to have been passive and blameless. It is the Administration that needs vindication; and the only way this can be secured is by the appointment to the post at St. Petersburg of a man who will be universally recognized as a diplomat worthy to take his place among those who in recent years have been making the American diplomatic service respected by the nations of the world—such men as Andrew D. White, David Jayne Hill, William

Woodville Rockhill, Oscar S. Straus, White-law Reid, Robert Bacon, and Henry White.

SUFFRAGISTS AND THE PRESIDENT

While the Archbishop of Canterbury was receiving a delegation of suffragists at Lambeth Palace in London, President Wilson was receiving an impressive delegation of workingwomen in favor of equal suffrage. Though the relations between the President and the women who waited on him were amicable, he too failed to give them the satisfaction of a promise to support their cause.

In his reply the President declared that such a group of women as that which surrounded him appealed to him very strongly, but that he was subject to certain limitations which restricted him to speak only for those things for which his party has declared. This is in harmony with an earlier declaration that he can urge only those things for which the Democratic platform declares.

"We do not ask you to speak for the party," said one of his interlocutors; "we ask you to speak to the party."

Then followed handshaking and general amiability.

The President of the United States at this moment had many questions on his hands and might very naturally decline to add the suffrage question; but the President was skillfully evading the issue. Nor was his position harmonious with his general bearing. As a matter of fact, Mr. Wilson is not only carrying out the will of the Democratic party, but he is in a very unusual sense the leader of the party. He has recently given an instance of this in recommending a Federal Trade Commission on which the platform of his party was silent. Nothing will be gained by politely evading the suffrage issue whenever it presents itself, for nothing gives surer ground for irritation. It is due to the suffragists to meet them frankly and squarely, either in approval or disapproval.

BUYING A JUDGESHIP

Three or four recent criminal convictions in the courts of New York have had a tonic effect in increasing public respect for the power of the law and public appreciation of the fact that malefactors of political pull or large wealth or social position are not as immune from punishment as they are sometimes supposed to be.

A few days ago William Willett, Jr., a lawyer

of the city of New York, politically affiliated with the Democratic party, was convicted of the criminal offense of buying the Democratic nomination in his district for the Supreme Court in 1911. It was alleged that he paid ten thousand dollars to the Democratic "boss" of his county—a man of wide political notoriety by the name of Cassidy. After Willett's conviction Cassidy was put on trial, and, with an accomplice, was convicted of receiving the ten-thousand-dollar bribe.

At this writing both Cassidy and Willett are in jail awaiting prison sentence. Cassidy was a "boss" of the first rank and wielded great power and exerted great influence. His conviction was a shock to him and to his political henchmen. It is said that no political boss of equal rank has been criminally prosecuted and convicted since the days of Boss Tweed and John Y. McKane. The prosecution and conviction of the latter, it will be remembered, gave the late Mayor Gaynor his first public prominence.

Rumors that high judgeships in the State have been for barter and sale have been current for a long time. The conviction of Willett and Cassidy, on the one hand, goes far to justify these rumors, and, on the other, will be of great influence in creating political respect for the high judicial office which the State of New York says, in a voice not to be ignored, must not be bought and sold.

RESPECTABLE SMUGGLING

Another notable criminal conviction, coming at about the same time as the conviction of Willett and Cassidy, is that of the brothers William and Lucius N. Littauer. Both successful men of affairs, of wide influence and social prominence, they were accused of having brought into this country valuable jewelry without paying the duty thereon—in other words, of smuggling. They pleaded guilty to the charge in court, and were sentenced to a term in jail and to pay a money fine in addition. The Judge of the United States Circuit Court before whom they were tried, in speaking of the high standing and reputation of the two men, said:

This is the more reason why they must have known what they were doing. It is indeed a sad spectacle that men who have held such high places among men should cheat their own Government for the sake of a small sum of money.

In view of the facts that the defendants had pleaded guilty, had interposed no obstacles to the trial, and had made every financial

reparation possible to the Government, the trial judge suspended the execution of the jail sentence, but it may be enforced at any time during the next five years should the Court decide that the conduct of the convicted men justifies its enforcement. An interesting legal point has since been raised, whether this conviction and suspended sentence deprive the two men of their civil rights—that is to say, of their right to vote or to become candidates for office. This point is of peculiar interest in this connection because Lucius Littauer, a well-known glove manufacturer of Gloversville, New York, is one of the prominent Republicans of this State and was a member of Congress from 1897 to 1907, where he was an ardent protectionist.

Some of the New York papers that have opposed the Progressive proposal to establish the right of an appeal from a legislative action of the courts to the Legislature—popularly known as the Recall of Judicial Decisions—have been strenuously appealing to public opinion in this instance in denunciation of a perfectly legitimate judicial action of the Court that tried the Littauers. They say that the Court in this case spared the Littauers a jail sentence because they are rich men. We think this is wholly unjust. The Court announced excellent reasons for clemency, and stated that there are no precedents for imprisonment in this vicinity for smuggling of this kind. The opinion of the Judge, however, clearly indicates that the severe arraignment of the prisoners does pave the way for imprisonment in any future cases of this character.

A CORRECTION

Through the kindness of one of our readers, Mr. George Tumpson, an attorney of New York City, our attention has been called to a statement in last week's article on "What Every Income Tax Payer Should Know" which is misleading. It is contained in the following sentence:

Under this provision, after 1913 all persons, corporations, trustees, etc., making payment of interest, salaries, rents, or other fixed or determinable annual or periodical income (other than dividends on capital stock) of another person exceeding \$3,000 a year (or \$4,000 where the person on whom the tax is withheld is married and living with his or her husband or wife) shall withhold the Normal Tax of one per cent on such sum and pay the same to the collector.

The misleading portion of this statement is that which is found in the second pair of

parentheses. As Mr. Tumpson points out, the employer following this statement would be in danger of getting into trouble. The law itself does not authorize the employer to make any exception with regard to a married man in the matter of withholding the payment of salaries. The same thing is true of those who pay interest, rents, or other forms of annual income. As soon as the amount exceeds \$3,000, one per cent of the total annual payment must be withheld, and the exemption is allowed only when application for it is filed.

For example, an employer pays an employee \$100 a week. On the thirty-first week the employer must withhold \$31. If the employee is single, he may then claim an exemption on the \$3,000 to which he is entitled. That means that he gets \$30 of the \$31, while the employer withholds the \$1. If the employee is married, he files (on Form 1007) an application for exemption of \$4,000. He then gets his \$1 as well as his \$30 back. When the payment exceeds \$4,000 and the employee is not taxable for reason of further deductions allowed by law, the application for further exemption must wait until the end of the year and then be made on Form 1008.

This we call attention to for the sake of those employers who might be misled by the former statement; but it is also worthy of notice as an instance of the intricacy of this law and of the difficulty of putting into simple language a trustworthy statement of even its most generally applicable provisions. Elsewhere in this issue we discuss more fully the confusion that surrounds the enforcement of this law.

MAETERLINCK UNDER BAN

Placing the works of Maeterlinck on the Index Expurgatorius will strike most readers as a belated use of an antiquated method of protecting the minds of good people from heretical opinions. Whatever mischief inheres in the thought of the author of "The Treasure of the Humble" has already done its work, for Maeterlinck has long been one of the most widely read writers of the day. The decree has not yet reached this country, and until its precise terms are known it would be unfair to criticise it in detail. If "Monna Vanna" had been laid under a ban years ago, the action would have been comprehensible; but to condemn "The Blue Bird" as heretical would be like treating a humming-bird as

a bird of prey. As well condemn "The Faerie Queene" or "Hänsel und Gretel." The editor of the Index has a very difficult task on his shoulders at the best, and must stand in sore need of the aid of the imagination if he has to pass on the orthodoxy of fairy tales.

So far as Maeterlinck's later discussions of immortality are concerned, they are delightful examples of a certain quality of style, but they can do no harm, because nobody can understand them. They cover the subject with a luminous mist, and are about as susceptible of being listed among dangerous books as wandering fog floating over the landscape.

The trouble with the Index as a means of protection is twofold: it has been too late ever since the printing-press was set in motion, and it attempts to keep out thought by barring the gates of a garden which has no walls. He who would bar out thought, good or bad, must be able to control the invisible channels of air through which it passes from mind to mind around the world. Men are not children and cannot be treated like children, and even children cannot be kept from contact with evil. The wise mother protects her child by planting truth and purity deep in his nature. She does not try to put him in a safe place, because she knows there are no safe places. She arms him for battle.

A NEW SCULPTOR

At the recent exhibition of the National Academy of Design of New York City some small sculptures or statuettes aroused unusual admiration and attention—unusual, because they were the work of a man hitherto unknown and because they excited both the interest of the ordinary layman and the unstinted praise of artists and art critics. Their human quality appealed to the layman and their composition and exquisite workmanship to the artist. They were the work of Paul Manship, a young Westerner. One of them, entitled "Centaur and Dryad," took the Helen Foster Barnett prize, the only reward in sculpture offered by the Academy. The Metropolitan Museum has now bought the "Centaur and Dryad," an unusual tribute to a sculptor so young in years and achievement.

Paul Manship is twenty-eight years of age, was born in St. Paul, Minnesota, and went to the schools there. He became interested in their modeling classes, and there he found his life-work—sculpture. He quickly attained

high rank, and in 1909 captured the "Prix de Rome" of the American Academy.

This gave him the opportunity of going not only to Rome but to Greece. He thus imbibed the vigor, virility, and vivacity of classic sculptural ideas, not only as shown in ancient statues, but also as indicated in the incomparable decorations of the Greek vases. What impresses the observer of Mr. Manship's work is the combination in it of classic precision with Western virility and reality. We print elsewhere in this issue illustrations of two of his typical figures. One is entitled "A Portrait Statuette;" the other, "Playfulness." The latter explains itself, and deservedly challenged at the exhibition of the National Academy of Design the instant attention of every one who appreciates a beautiful and joyous idea embodied with the skill of a master. The "Portrait Statuette" we reproduce because it exemplifies Mr. Manship's interest in both modernism and classicism. The bronze at the Academy exhibition which drew most comment from the artists was one entitled "The Awakening of Spring." It represents the undraped figure of a young woman yawning and stretching both arms and legs in a singularly natural manner. The anatomy of the figure is perfect, and the skill of the artist has been shown in that he has been able to make out of an awkward position and a grimacing face a thing of beauty. We attempted to make a photograph of this bronze for reproduction in *The Outlook*, but from no position could a photograph be taken which did not produce in the picture an awkward foreshortening of some part of the figure; and yet, to the observer, the lines of the figure are perfect. That the sculptor should be able to make into a beautiful bronze a conception of the human figure which the photographer cannot portray furnishes a homely illustration of the fact that much that can never be expressed pictorially can be expressed in sculpture. Each art, of course, supplements the function of every other. Yet over the exact boundary lines between these various fields of human endeavor critics will doubtless continue to wage wordy battles until the end of time.

THE AMERICAN "PRIX DE ROME"

The reference in the foregoing paragraph to the "Prix de Rome" won by Mr. Manship makes a word of comment on that prize

of possible interest. For very many years the winners of the competitive scholarships instituted all over France in architecture, painting, sculpture, and music have been sent for four years, free, to the French Academy in Rome, founded by Louis XIV. Such an opportunity was indeed the "Prize of Rome."

We now have our own Academy at Rome with its "Prix de Rome"—the American parallel of the like institutions owned in Rome, not only by France, but also by Germany, England, Spain, Russia, Austria, Belgium, and Holland. All of these receive at least some financial support from their Governments. Our institution receives none. It is supported entirely by private benefaction.

But it is, we are glad to say, a National institution. It was incorporated by Congress, and its purpose was defined as follows: "To promote the study and practice of the fine arts, and to aid and stimulate the education and training of architects, painters, sculptors, and other artists, by enabling such citizens of the United States as shall be selected by competition from among those who have passed with honor through leading technical schools or have been equally well qualified by private instruction or study to develop their powers and complete their training under the most favorable conditions of direction and surroundings."

The Academy consists of two parts—the School of Fine Arts and the School of Classical Studies. These were both started in 1894 as independent institutions, but a year ago were consolidated in a single organization, for, by Act of Congress, the Academy was allowed to "enlarge its purposes so as include the study and investigation of the archaeology, literature, and history of the classical and later periods."

The Academy not only meets the purposes referred to in these Acts of Congress, but, by enabling students of the various arts to work together, gives to every young painter, sculptor, and architect connected with it a comprehension of the allied arts which he could not otherwise acquire. Moreover, by bringing students of art, archaeology, and classical literature into close fellowship with one another it develops a breadth of understanding among them of benefit to each in his own particular field.

The value in time of the American scholarship is three years of residence in Rome. The value in money is a thousand dollars, the defraying of traveling expenses to and from

Rome, and the use of the Academy's lodgings and studios while there. During the student's sojourn he is required to live at the Academy. He must spend his spare time during the first year in central Italy; during the second, anywhere in Italy; and during the third, in Italy, Greece, or in any other country where there are classic or Renaissance remains.

The Academy has already achieved a good record—it has trained over a hundred Americans. Not only have these been chosen by competition from among the best students at our colleges and schools of art; they are now recognized as among the younger leaders in art and archaeology. Those who desire further information about the work of the Academy may obtain it by addressing the Secretary of the American Academy in Rome, Mr. C. Grant La Farge, 101 Park Avenue, New York City.

GEORGE S. MERRIAM

Mr. George S. Merriam's death has its special relation to the staff and to the readers of *The Outlook* on account of his early connection with the journal. He may indeed be said to have been one of the founders of the "*Christian Union*." In 1870 he was selected by Mr. Beecher to be his associate, and became in fact, though not in name, its editor-in-chief, and did much to impart to it that spirit and temper which we hope it has never lost. For Mr. Beecher, though a great editorial writer, was never a true editor, and after Mr. Merriam's connection with the "*Christian Union*" was hardly more than an occasional editorial contributor to its pages.

Mr. Merriam was essentially a man of letters, and as such his distinguishing characteristics were "sweetness and light." He had the poet's power both of vision and of interpretation, though we do not know that he ever wrote rhythmical poetry. His religious contributions to the pages of the "*Christian Union*" may not inaptly be compared to those of Mr. Hutton to the London "*Spectator*." He dealt with religion as an experience, not as a philosophy; escaped theological controversies, not by evasion nor by mediation, but by a spiritual interpretation of life which showed it to be large enough to include men of different schools of thought and different habits of thinking. This characteristic of his nature and mind is indicated by the title of some of his best contributions to the spiritual literature of his time: "A Living Faith," "The Way of Life,"

"The Chief End of Man." After his resignation from the "*Christian Union*" he retired to Springfield, Massachusetts, his native city and the home of his parents, where he resided till the day of his death, January 22, 1914.

The later years of his life were devoted to literature rather than to journalism, though he was a constant contributor to the columns of the Springfield "*Republican*." From an eloquently appreciative biographical sketch in that journal one sentence, and in that sentence the one word "*sauntered*," will give to those who never knew him personally an impressionistic portrait of the man: "*Merriam loved the beauty of earth, the charm and power of nature. He walked, or rather sauntered, amid the purlieus of her courts in mountain, on plain, or by the sea, and felt deeply the wonder and loveliness of all, so that he made all these bright things and sweet things, the shine and shade equally, a part of what he had to say—a true vehicle for his own finest thought.*"

OLD ROME

For many years Professor Boni, the remarkable excavator and the custodian of the Roman Forum, has been at work there and in the surrounding region laying bare the records of early history. His most recent discovery has been the finding of what he claims is the *mundus*, a pit in which the instruments, seeds, and certain articles of religion used in founding Rome were deposited.

Signor Boni uncovered a domed chamber of archaic construction, from the bottom of which a shaft descended to passages which served as stores for grain. The shrine, about forty feet below the summit of the Palatine Hill, was identified by Signor Boni with the *mundus*, or the underground chamber, which, as it was supposed to communicate with the world below, served as a place of offering to the deities of that under world.

Signor Boni's other investigations in the Forum indicate that Rome is an older place than is often supposed; indeed, the human remains found would seem to show that the settlements on the hills of Rome are at least as old as the eighth century B.C.

Another important recent Forum excavation—though its location has long been known—has been that of the Ara Pacis. This monument commemorates the return of the Emperor Augustus from the western provinces in B.C. 13.

Another discovery is that of the Palace of

Domitian (81-96) itself, under which the *mundus* has been found. Thus Giacomo Boni has uncovered most interesting memorials dating from the Romans of the prehistoric races—and following the development of the rustic house to the luxurious palaces of the Emperors.

THE HEALTH OF THE ARMY

The record of the army medical corps for the past decade, and particularly for the past five years, has been one of consistent and rapid progress—one of which the men who made it may well be proud.

Yellow fever was robbed of its terrors to the soldier by the investigation carried on after the Spanish-American War, and now typhoid, which has been the dread guest at so many camps, has been reduced to a negligible factor in the army mortality rate. In 1909, the year that inoculation was introduced into the army as a preventive for this disease, there were one hundred and seventy-three cases of typhoid, with a death rate of a little more than one man to every four thousand. During 1913 there were two cases, with no deaths.

An objection that has been alleged against typhoid inoculation, which an American soldier must now undergo once every four years, is that it increases the subject's susceptibility to tuberculosis. This theory has been held by few reputable physicians, and it is not borne out by figures which show that during the same five years in which typhoid has been practically wiped out of our soldiery the hospital admission rate for each thousand men for tuberculosis has decreased from 4.39 to 3.49.

Among the other ills to which the fighting man is heir, venereal disease, alcoholism, and malarial fever are the most troublesome. Statistics on these diseases for 1913 are not yet available, but in the period from 1908 to 1912, inclusive, the admission rate for venereal diseases was reduced from 155 men out of each thousand to 116, for alcoholism from 30 to 17, and for malarial fevers from 24 to 14. Such figures speak for themselves.

Since typhoid inoculation and other prophylactic measures have succeeded in the army, they might well be adopted generally by the vast private corporations whose employees are legion. The increased efficiency and the money saving that would be sure to result are incalculable.

THE INCOME TAX PUZZLE

Obedience to law is in one respect like a quarrel: it takes two to make it possible. Disobedience may be the fault of the one who commands as well as the fault of the one who is commanded. The child who is told to do something that is beyond his powers cannot help disobeying. In that case the burden of the disobedience rests, not upon the child, but upon the parent or the teacher who issued the order.

It has often been said that the greatest danger to self-government is the spirit of lawlessness, and that disobedience to law or disregard of law is the gravest defect in the American people. If that is true, and we believe that it is, we must look for its cause, not merely in the people who are called upon to obey, but in the spirit and method by which the laws are made.

Sometimes laws are enacted which no one expects to be enforced, or which the majority that enacted them do not wish enforced. That is bad enough; but it is worse when laws are enacted that no one can understand, and therefore no one can obey.

The new Income Tax Law is of this character. A great deal of it is beyond the comprehension of the ordinary citizen, and some of it is beyond the comprehension of experts. The legislator who was sponsor for the bill in Congress has not been able to convince others that he fully understands the intent of the law himself. It is certain that those officials of the Government whose duty it is to enforce the law have not fully understood it, for regulations have been issued, and then withdrawn, and other regulations substituted. Those most competent to give counsel to prospective income tax payers advise them to fill out their blanks early, but not to file them with the Collector of Revenue until the last possible moment, because no one knows when a new regulation will be issued modifying or nullifying former instructions. It is certain that a great many people who have taken all possible pains to ascertain what the law requires and to comply with every requirement will have disobeyed it. In the case of one provision, we see no way by which a person can comply with the law and at the same time avoid paying a tax for which the law gives no authority without committing perjury.

This is lawlessness.

The responsibility for this state of lawless-

ness rests upon those who enacted the law. In particular, it rests upon the present Administration. The Income Tax Law is a part of the Tariff Law, and, as such, was and is an Administration measure. The present Administration should not have adopted this measure as its own without understanding it. If it understands the law, it ought not to put it in operation without making it perfectly possible for those who are called upon to obey it to understand it. There is no excuse for this condition. This is not the first income tax law that was ever enacted. Other nations have income tax laws, and their provisions should have been more carefully studied than they appear to have been. If, as a consequence of this law, a new spirit of impatience with all law is displayed, those who enacted the Income Tax Law without making it intelligible cannot complain if they are held responsible.

THE INTER-STATE TRADE COMMISSION

The Outlook believes in a Federal Trade Commission, and it has already expressed its gratification at the fact that the President of the United States, after apparently opposing the organization of such a Commission, has now come to recognize the importance, and even the necessity, of its organization. There are, however, important aspects of the Trade Commission as it is set forth in the Administration bill which The Outlook thinks seriously objectionable.

In the first place, the sweeping inquisitorial power which it is proposed to give to this Commission is not only unnecessary, but is likely to nullify the value of such a Commission. According to the bill which has been introduced, all corporations engaged in inter-State commerce will be required to furnish information and records of their organization, business, financial condition and management, and their relation to other corporations; and the Commission will have access to all their records, minutes, and accounts. Only a small proportion of corporations engaged in inter-State commerce require any such supervision as is contemplated by this bill. The evils of our modern commercial organization which call for first consideration and correction are the evils of monopoly; and these have been described by

the United States Supreme Court as power to raise prices, power to limit output, and power to depreciate quality. It is obvious that the great majority of corporations have none of these powers. What is needed, therefore, is an administrative commission which will concentrate its attention and activity upon those corporations that are actually or potentially the sources of these real and outstanding evils. To give the Inter-State Trade Commission power over all inter-State corporations indiscriminately is to lay upon it a corresponding duty to regulate and supervise all inter-State corporations indiscriminately. This is to waste its power and to divert it from the task it ought to undertake.

In the second place, the provision of law which makes the information gathered by the Commission a matter of public record, which the Commission from time to time can make public as it wishes, not only is unnecessary, but is likely to result in enhancing rather than diminishing modern commercial evils. According to the bill, it is distinctly provided that publicity may be given to any or all of this information as to the organization, business, financial condition, conduct, and management of any or all of these corporations. No unusual gift of imagination is needed to anticipate the ill-consequences of such a provision. It means inequality before the law, for those corporations which happen not to be investigated will have an advantage over those which happen to be. It will, moreover, create a condition of uncertainty, as no corporation will have any means of knowing when its business will be made the subject of investigation and its records and condition opened to the public. It will also give an advantage to the unscrupulous over the scrupulous, for every corporation whose methods of doing business and whose financial condition are made a matter of public record will be made vulnerable to the attack of those unscrupulous competitors who happen to have escaped the scrutinizing eye of the Commission. Under the guise of creating means for the prevention of monopoly, a bill with this provision, if enacted into law, would be in grave danger of creating, if not certain to create, new and more serious evils of unfair competition.

For the purpose of making clear our objections to these propositions of the bill we here restate the principles which in our judgment should govern Congress in the

organization of such Commission and in determining what its powers should be.

1. All corporations should be allowed to go on with the conduct of their business as now, except as, either by their voluntary action or by the action of the Government, as hereinafter described, that conduct of their business is modified or interfered with.

2. Every corporation desiring to engage in inter-State commerce should be *permitted* to take out a Federal charter making it a Federal corporation, or perhaps preferably a license from the Government allowing it to carry on inter-State commerce under its State charter.

3. In order to secure such incorporation or license it should be required to submit its business to an investigation by the Federal Trade Commission. In case it receives an approval from the Federal Government it should thereafter, except for acts done after the approval, be immune from criminal prosecution. The certificate of approval by the Federal Trade Commission should be conclusive evidence of its integrity of intent, as indicated by its form of organization. But this immunity should not extend to civil suits brought by individual complainants.

4. The Federal Trade Commission should have authority to require any corporation engaged in inter-State commerce to show cause why it should not submit its organization and its method of conducting its business to investigation; and approval of the organization issued after such compulsory investigation should have the same effect of giving immunity.

5. The Trade Commission should have power of supervision and regulation over all corporations which either voluntarily or by compulsion have been submitted to its authority. This power of supervision and regulation should be similar to that exercised by the Inter-State Commerce Commission over the railways, or by banking authorities over banks. Either directly or indirectly, it should be able to deal with those evils which the Supreme Court has specified as the evils of monopoly, and therefore, either directly or indirectly, it should supervise the fixing of prices, the regulation of output, and the determination of quality of product.

6. Whenever, by a decree of a court, a combination is declared to be monopolistic and is ordered to be dissolved, the Federal Trade Commission should be given the authority and duty of administering the decree

of dissolution, with full power to decide what it is necessary for the combination to do in order that the purpose of the decree be carried out.

THE IMMIGRATION OF ASIATICS

Mr. E. A. Hayes, Representative from California, introduced an amendment of the Immigration Bill for the exclusion of Asiatics. Congress evidently realized that this was no time to add a new complication to our international relations, and wisely defeated the amendment. The question, however, is only postponed. We therefore requested a statement from Mr. Hayes, and print it herewith. We follow it with a statement of our own.

I—A CALIFORNIAN VIEW

Replying to your telegram and speaking for the people of California, I would say that it makes no difference to them how Oriental exclusion is brought about, whether by a treaty or by statute. The only thing that they ask is that it be brought about, and that the exclusion be effectual and complete. About nine thousand Japanese are on record as having come to this country the last year, practically all of them to the Hawaiian Islands and the Pacific Coast. There are doubtless several thousand others whose coming is not of record who came over the borders from Mexico and Canada.

Our friends in the East do not appreciate this menace; they point to the few who are coming and are inclined to be indifferent to the Western pleadings for protection.

If, early in the history of this country, when only a few thousands of Africans were here, those charged with the responsibility of its government had passed laws to prevent their coming, we should not now be face to face with a race problem the solution of which no man pretends to see.

The time to deal with this delicate and difficult question is before it gets too acute and the problem too large; and that is what we are asking—that it be effectually and promptly dealt with now. Orientals coming here with passports from their Government are of course protected by that Government, and it is impossible for us, without a breach of our treaty or gentlemen's agreement, to arrest and deport them. We are dependent

at the present time upon Japan for protection against this peril. While I bring no indictment against the Japanese Government, and believe that they are doing the best they can under conditions in their country to keep their agreement, this seems to me a very undignified and unsatisfactory way to protect our people and our country from the coming of aliens who are impossible of assimilation, and who, whether they come in great or small numbers, are an ever-present menace.

Every country maintains, as one of the fundamentals of government, the right to determine what aliens shall be permitted to become a part of its population, and under what conditions; and I do not see how any country has the right to take offense when, by a statute passed by the proper authorities, we undertake to exercise that right. Those of us who understand the Oriental character know that as long as the talk about force has the desired effect we shall not cease to hear it at such times as there is an indication of action looking to the exclusion of the Oriental races from this country. And, for one, I am very tired of "kowtowing" and saying "by your leave" whenever we begin the public discussion of this subject in this country.

From the above you will gather, I think, why I offered the amendment to the Immigration Bill on Monday last.

F. A. HAYES.

II—THE OUTLOOK'S VIEW

Without undertaking or even desiring to take up the points in Mr. Hayes's statement, we here place beside it what we believe to be certain truths that should be recognized in dealing with the question of immigration from Asia.

In its intercourse with a foreign people this Nation ought to exhibit good manners. A man whose neighbor's children are for any reason unwelcome as playmates for his children may go to his neighbor with bluster and threats. If so, he shows himself to be a boor. If he is a gentleman, he will go to his neighbor and talk the matter over with courtesy that is entirely compatible with frankness. If his neighbor has good manners, the difficulty can be settled with the maintenance of friendliness, and perhaps even with an increase of mutual understanding and respect.

The question whether this country wishes to restrict immigration from Asia to the

lowest possible point is not now before the country. It is already settled, unless the question is reopened, that the United States does not wish the immigration of Asiatics *en masse*. The only question now before the country, which has been raised by Mr. Hayes's amendment, is whether the United States shall carry out this policy of restriction by the joint action of its own Government with other Governments, or whether it shall act without regard to the wishes of those other Governments and without even consulting their preferences as to the manner in which the policy shall be carried out.

We believe very strongly that the civilized and decent thing to do is to act as we have been acting—in friendly understanding with our neighbors. There is not the slightest reason to believe that we can gain anything by abandoning a course of good manners, and every reason for believing that by keeping to this course the United States will deal most effectively with this question.

We here reiterate the policy that we believe is the right one with regard to Japanese immigration:

I. Allow Japan to regulate emigration to the United States (as she is now doing) with the renewed understanding between our Government and hers that she is not to permit emigration *en masse* or in even such a volume or of such a kind as would be socially, economically, or politically embarrassing to us in the Pacific Coast States.

II. Grant the right of naturalization to individual Japanese of proper personal qualifications who are now permanently settled in the United States, and to individual Japanese who may hereafter come here under the terms of the understanding mentioned in the foregoing paragraph—such applicants for naturalization being required to present a passport from the Japanese Government with the indorsement "Expatriation authorized," as a guarantee that the Japanese Government approves of the bearer's abandonment of Japanese allegiance.

III. Give the American Government, in its agreement with the Japanese Government, the expressed right to exclude without appeal all Japanese immigrants who do not come to this country with proper passports from their own Government, and to deport all found here without such papers. This assumes, of course, that the Japanese now here will be given the opportunity to obtain, if their right to them can be shown, the necessary passports.

THACKERAY'S ROMANCE

The first letter in the delightful "Collection of Letters of Thackeray," published twenty-six years ago, begins, "There will be no dinner at Greenwich on Monday. Dickens has chosen that day for a reconciliation banquet between Forster and me." It was characteristic of the man that if he was separated from a friend, as he was for a time from Dickens, sooner or later they came together; it was quite impossible to resist Thackeray. On one occasion he was late at dinner and the other guests sat down, and the talk immediately turned on the author of "Vanity Fair," who was at the height of his fame. He was warmly praised by every one present except a Mr. H., himself a writer of charming books. He vigorously dissented from the judgment of the company, expressing his opinion that, from the emphasis on the weaknesses and absurdities of humanity in the novels, their author could not possess any kind or generous sympathies toward the human race, adding that he had never met him, and hoped he never should do so. Meanwhile Thackeray had slipped into his place and heard this peroration. He touched his critic's shoulder and said, quietly, "I, on the contrary, have always longed for the occasion when I could express, personally, to Mr. H. the great admiration I have always felt for him as an author and a man." It is needless to add that they became fast friends.

The "Collection of Letters of Thackeray," published by Mrs. Brookfield in 1888, were chosen from a long and voluminous correspondence with the aid and advice of Lowell, Mrs. Brookfield declaring in her note of introduction, "If every one of these letters from Thackeray could be rightly made public, without the slightest restriction, they would all the more redound to his honor." A large part of this unpublished correspondence has now been made public, and, while many lovers of Thackeray and of the old traditions of the sanctity of confidential correspondence will deplore this violation of the privacy of the dead, Mrs. Brookfield's declaration is fully sustained: these letters not only redound to his honor, but throw his chivalrous integrity into high relief. At a time when the great word love is so often used to describe relations between men and women which have no more to do with love than the temporary mating of animals, and the words "soul mate" are dragged in the mire of

purely physical relations, these letters show how a man of honor and a gentleman bears himself when he is called upon to face the tragedy of loving a woman who is the wife of another.

Thackeray's wife, it will be remembered, became insane not long after his marriage, and spent her long life in confinement. To a man of his sensibility and temperament this was a great and lasting trial. He became intimate with the Brookfields during those early years in London when he was struggling to gain a foothold in his profession, and when the terrible sorrow which left his daughters motherless was casting its deepest shadow over him.

The world has long known of the friendship between Thackeray and Mrs. Brookfield, but it now learns for the first time that on his part at least this friendship became an ardent love that ended in a great renunciation. It is a story which nobly defines the difference between passion and love. The time came when Thackeray could no longer conceal his feeling for Mrs. Brookfield, and did not try to do so; it was known to Mr. Brookfield and to the circle of intimate friends. Even when he is apologizing to Mr. Brookfield for his indiscreet disclosure of that love to others he is still the irresistible Thackeray:

Her innocence, looks, angelical sweetness and kindness charm and ravish me to the highest degree; and every now and then in contemplating them I burst out into uncouth rapture. They are not the least dangerous—it is a sort of artistical delight (a spiritual sensuality, so to speak)—other beautiful objects in nature so affect me, children, landscapes, harmonies of color, music, etc. . . . My dear old fellow, you and God Almighty may know all my thoughts about your wife; I'm not ashamed of one of them, since the days of the dear old twopenny tart dinner till now. . . . 'Evins! Here is Wimbledon Station. Well, I have opened my bowels to you. Indeed, there has not been much secret before; and I've always admired the generous spirit in which you have witnessed my queer raptures. If I had envy, or what you call passion, or a wicked thought . . . I should have cut you long ago.

"But, thank God," he writes to Mrs. Brookfield, "I have never concealed the affection I have for you. Your husband knows it as well as I do, and I think I have such a claim to the love of both of you as no relationship, however close, ought to question or supersede." Later, when relations with the Brookfields had been suspended, a common friend sent him a letter about himself from Mrs. Brookfield, which he returned

with the statement that even such a round-about correspondence ought not to be ; “ her husband, acting at this moment nobly and gently, must be nobly and gently used, and until he authorizes a correspondence none such must be ; and now, if she’s in torment, take her a drop of water with you from another soul in purgatory.”

The soul of this hidden romance in Thackeray’s life is recorded in a few characteristic phrases :

No, dear lady, we will do better ; we will love each other while we may here and afterward ; if you go first, you will kneel for me in heaven and bring me there ; if I, I swear the best thought I have is to remember that I shall have your love surviving me and with a constant tenderness blessing my memory. I can’t all perish living in your heart. That in itself is a sort of seal and assurance of heaven. . . . Say that I die and live yet in the love of my survivors ? Isn’t that a warrant of immortality almost ? Say that my two dearest friends precede me and enter into God’s futurity spotless and angelical ? I feel that I have two advocates in heaven, and that my love penetrates there, as it were. It seems to me that love proves God. By love, I believe that I am saved.

LETTERS TO UNKNOWN FRIENDS

Here are two conceptions of the Christian religion : the first, expressed by an unknown friend, I shall call the Law ; the second, the Gospel.

THE LAW

When I went to Sunday-school, I was taught the Ten Commandments, and one of them declared that “ the seventh day is the Sabbath.” I was taught that this is a divine command like all the others of the Ten Commandments. But I find that, three hundred and twenty-five years after Christianity was born, a council of human beings, called the Council of Nicæa, convened by a human being named Constantine the Great, instituted the first-day Sabbath to displace the seventh-day Sabbath. Even if the members of that Council and Constantine also were saints—and they were not, for the clergy in those days were ignorant and immoral, and Constantine was the murderer of his wife, son, and nephew, and was a political weathercock—even if they were saints, they were all human beings.

Why shall any Christian keep a Sabbath which is man-made, when the seventh-day Sabbath, which was God-made, is set aside ?

And why need any Christian show any respect for Christianity when the personal example of Jesus is deliberately disregarded ? He kept the seventh-day Sabbath. His example is, or ought to be, surely good enough for his followers. He would keep the seventh-day Sabbath if he were alive to-day.

A yet deeper subconscious thought is this : If religion can be altered by human beings, why respect religion ? I believe that the falling off in church attendance, the growing disregard for the Sabbath, and the gradual permeation of society with unreligious and irreligious poison is due to the subconscious thought that human beings may interpret even the plainest and most direct and the most unmistakable divine declarations as they please.

The Protestants declare that they are not bound by the declarations of certain Councils. Therefore they revolted from Catholicism. Why, therefore, do they not refuse to be bound by that Council of Nicæa ?

I believe that Christianity would be all the stronger if it returned to Bible teachings. I believe it would be considered more binding if it did not set aside divine commands by human councils. I believe that numberless Christians feel that they can take any liberty they please with what is called religion if human beings in council assembled may refuse to follow the highest example of implicit obedience, and may, besides, set aside by human reasoning a divine command.

“ Back to the Bible ! ” I say. “ Back to first principles ! ” “ Back to the seventh-day Sabbath ! ” It required moral courage for Wyclif, Luther, and Calvin to declare themselves against Council-made or man-made doctrines and innovations. Is there no modern Wyclif or Luther or Calvin ?

One other point. If Sunday is the Sabbath, then, to follow the precedent of those days, Saturday night after sunset should be observed as a Sabbath in every Christian city. Is it ? It is these inconsistencies, these human settings aside of divine commands, this un-Christian refusal to follow the personal example of the very founder of Christianity, that make us subconsciously reflect that we need not trouble ourselves with the demands of Christianity as now interpreted. That is to say, all that we need do is live a moral life, and, if we choose, never set a foot in church, disregard the Sabbath, and observe only those social amenities which we, in our human, and therefore super-divine (?), reason approve.

May I ask for an expression of your own

opinion on the restoration of the seventh-day Sabbath?

H. P. L.

THE GOSPEL

Your conception of the Christian religion is very different from mine. You regard the Christian religion as obedience to a series of divinely issued rules and regulations; you believe that to study those rules and regulations, to understand exactly what they mean, and to give them a scrupulous obedience is to be a virtuous citizen of the kingdom of God.

But scrupulous obedience to a series of divinely issued rules and regulations does not make a Christian. It does not even make a virtuous man. One may obey all the Ten Commandments and yet not be a good man.

"Thou shalt not kill."

I may never kill and yet not be humane.

"Thou shalt not commit adultery."

I may not commit adultery and yet not be pure.

"Thou shalt not steal."

I may never steal and yet not be honest.

"Thou shalt not bear false witness against thy neighbor."

I may never bear false witness against my neighbor and yet be an inveterate liar.

So I may remember the seventh day to keep it holy—that is, set apart by itself—and in it I may do no manner of work, neither I, nor my man servant, nor my maid servant, nor my cattle, nor the stranger that is within my gates, and yet not observe the Sabbath of the Lord my God.

The Ten Commandments are not ten statutes which must be carefully studied and strictly construed and literally obeyed. They are concrete illustrations of general principles in accordance with which one should regulate his conduct, and will regulate his conduct provided the right spirit dwells within him. The principles of the four commandments I have quoted are: Regard for the rights of my neighbor—his right to his person, his right to his family, his right to his property, his right to his reputation. So the general principle involved in the Fourth Commandment is the necessity, for the welfare of the individual and for the welfare of the community, of keeping some stated time free from the toil and drudgery of the world for rest, recreation, and ministry to the higher life.

That the particular hour of the day or day of the week is of no importance is evident from a single fact. When men are going to morning service in New York they are about

going to bed in Calcutta and about getting up in San Francisco. If two men who observed the same day should start from New York at the same time for a tour round the world, one going east, the other west, they would find, when they reached New York again, that they were observing different days. One would have gained and the other would have lost a day on the journey.

The principle that obedience to an external law, however scrupulous, is not the Christian religion, Jesus makes very clear: "It was said by them of old time, Thou shalt not commit adultery: but I say unto you, That whosoever looketh on a woman to lust after her hath committed adultery with her already in his heart."

John, his beloved disciple, applies the same principle to the Sixth Commandment: "Whosoever hateth his brother is a murderer."

Paul applies it in explicit terms to the Sabbath: "Let no man therefore judge you in meat, or in drink, or in respect of an holy-day, or of the new moon, or of the Sabbath days: which are a shadow of things to come; but the body is of Christ."

The motorman or drug clerk who is compelled by the exigencies of our modern civilization to work on the first day or the seventh day as on other days, but who strives to get some fragments of time every week for rest and spiritual refreshment, may be complying with the Fourth Commandment better than the Pharisee who employs a coachman or footman to drive him to church and thanks God that he is not a Sabbath-breaker as other men are.

Jesus Christ came to fulfill the law and the prophets: that is, to fill those that love him and follow him so full of the divine spirit that they would spontaneously live the divine life; that they would obey the law without considering the law.

The whole law, he said, is summed up in one word—love. He that loves God with all his heart and soul and strength and loves his neighbor as himself obeys all the Ten Commandments, including the fourth.

My father in one of his writings describes a father and his son going out into the garden. They see a bird sitting on a bush. If the father says, See that bird: let us see if we can hit him, the boy will pick up a stone and make the attempt. If the father says, See that bird; let us get some bread and feed him, the boy will be equally eager to get the bread and give food to the bird. The

father gives no command; the son obeys no command. But he reverences his father, wishes to be like his father, and imbibes his father's spirit.

Jesus Christ lived a divine life upon the earth. The same spirit which was in Jesus Christ is still in the world. Says Harnack: "Not only in the beginning was the Word, the Word that was at once Deed and Life; but the living, resolute, indomitable Word, namely, the person, has always been a power in history, along with and above the power of circumstance." To be a Christian is to reverence this Christ, to desire to have a life like Christ's, to possess a Christlike spirit, and in that spirit continue the work which Christ began and which he has left his followers to complete under his leadership and in his companionship. And it is to seek that companionship and that spirit by trying to do his work with him. You fathers, says Christ, give good gifts to your children; how much more will your heavenly Father give the Holy Spirit to them that ask him? This spirit that was in Christ is the Holy Spirit. To seek it, to possess it, to live in harmony with it and under its guidance and direction, is to be a Christian. This is what Paul means when he says he desires above all things to be found in Christ, "not having mine own righteousness, which is of the law"—that is, the kind of righteousness which

comes from obedience to rules and regulations—"but that which is through the faith of Christ, the righteousness which is of God by faith;" that is, the kind of righteousness which flows spontaneously and naturally from an inward life of fellowship with God. Please to do right, then do as you please—that is Christian living.

Rules and regulations, the Bible, the Church, are useful, not as ends, but as means to promote this "life of God in the soul of man."

This is the sole object of the law. "The law is a schoolmaster to bring us to Christ."

This is the sole object of the Bible. It is "profitable for doctrine, for reproof, for correction, for instruction in righteousness, that the man of God may be perfect, thoroughly furnished unto all good works."

This is the sole object of the Church. Its ministry, whether apostles, or prophets, or evangelists, or pastors, or teachers, was given that we may come unto a perfect manhood, "unto the measure of the stature of the fullness of Christ."

Whatever form of doctrine, of worship, or of observance helps us to attain this manhood we may use; whatever does not so help us we may dispense with.

The whole of Christianity is summed up in the two words, Follow me.

LYMAN ABBOTT.

THE WHITE SLAVE FILMS: A REVIEW

IN its issue of January 17 The Outlook discussed at some length the problem of educating the public through the medium of moving-picture films in the dangers and horrors attendant upon the existence of the social evil. With one picture drama, "The Traffic in Souls," as a text, The Outlook stated its belief that the "movies" could be made as effective a means of instruction in such social problems as either fiction or the stage: that while, like both fiction and the stage, the "movies" lend themselves to grave abuse, they should not be denied the privilege of sharing in the fight for social progress. We said distinctly that the particular film which we discussed was false in some particulars of fact, out of proportion in the presentation of others; that even the best of such films could not teach morality to the immoral, could not by themselves inculcate high ideals,

but that we did believe that they might be made of tremendous value in destroying the glamour of baseness. To our mind the question whether a moving picture portraying some phase of the social evil should be permitted presentation or not depends entirely upon the last point mentioned in the previous sentence. Does it make vice attractive? Does it make virtue seem foolish and evil a means to pleasure and quick reward?

This editorial called forth no little comment, not only from our readers, but, to some extent, in the daily press. Four letters which we received seem to us of particular interest. As they are all careful criticisms of the position which we took in the matter of these films, we think it only fair to present them to our readers. One letter comes from a secretary of a Young Men's Christian Association in a city in Iowa, another comes from

a social worker in New York, the third comes from the general counsel of the American Vigilance Association, and the fourth from Mrs. Barclay Hazard, head of the New York Branch of the National Florence Crittenton Mission for unfortunate women. Mr. Reynolds, of the Vigilance Association, favored the production of "Damaged Goods" and other plays of similar character. None of the letters are from people who take a narrow view of the public discussion of such problems. Therefore we consider the criticisms of distinct value. The first letter which we publish is from Mr. D. O. Hibbard, of Mason City, Iowa:

WHAT THE SMALL TOWN THINKS

"I have read," he writes, "with a large interest, your editorial entitled 'The White Slave Films.' In your classification I presume that I fall into that class who believe that every 'weapon in the arsenal of truth' should be used in the fight against evil.

"Will you permit me to express it as my judgment that your editorial is written from the point of view of a large city, and that the problems of Mason City are very different from those of Manhattan? To be specific, you refer to the film 'A Traffic in Souls,' and you detail the story of the film as indicating that the traps set may be found in stores, railway terminals, steamship piers, etc. These are situations that we do not have in a small city. The opposition to the exhibition of these films in this city should be so strong as to prohibit them, because they deal with situations which we do not have and of which we know nothing. For us, therefore, they could have only a morbid, demoralizing interest, exactly similar, only of greater magnitude, to that of the *risqué* novel.

"In the smaller cities the social evil does not recruit its victims under the conditions that they are recruited in large cities. Therefore these white slave films are not to us 'a weapon out of the arsenal of truth,' but rather a poisoned arrow out of the camp of the enemy, which finds its mark our moral integrity, and leaves a rankling wound, slow to heal. This must be true, unless we are to believe that in order to be pure-minded we must first know all evil.

"Your idea that the motion picture offers a great opportunity to put before the people elements that enter into the war on vice is absolutely true; however, there is likely to

be a divergence rather than a coincidence of the two lines—the line which indicates the direction of what is most telling in the war on vice, and the line which indicates the greatest commercial return. In order that the film may be commercially successful for any period of time, it must contain an entertaining element, and films warring against social vice in the most telling way cannot be made universally entertaining.

"I think, furthermore, that in part your reasoning is psychologically unsound. The reaction in the adolescent mind resulting from motion pictures containing a sex interest is dangerous. That adolescent boys indulge, though not simultaneously with viewing them, in that 'intimate self-comparison and analysis' is proven conclusively by the expressed thoughts of boys who have wished themselves in situations similar to the situations filled by the actor in a motion picture, and who have, with the motion-picture drama as a basis, carried out and extended in their own minds and with themselves as the principals the idea of the scenario to include imagined acts astoundingly degrading. While the power of the cinematograph to explain a process or a situation is unequaled, just so is its power of suggestion unequaled, and we are in danger of ignoring the latter, the peril of suggestion, in our wholesale acceptance of the former as a 'weapon out of the arsenal of truth.'"

WHO GO TO THE FILMS, AND WHY?

The second letter is from a social worker in New York, Miss Nellie M. Smith. It is interesting to note that Miss Smith disagrees with one of the points raised by Mr. Hibbard. She believes, as does The Outlook, that such films as "The Traffic in Souls" would be of value for presentation in small cities and country towns, not so much because of the particular dangers existing in the immediate neighborhood, but because sooner or later most members of our rural population do come in contact with the life of our great cities. It should be remembered in connection with the following letter that The Outlook in its editorial of January 17 did not attempt to discuss the merits or lack of merit in particular films, but rather to lay down general principles of procedure. Miss Smith writes:

"As a social worker who is vitally interested in the problems of our young working-girls, I very much regret the attitude taken by The Outlook on the white slave films. The

article entitled 'The White Slave Films,' in the issue of January 17, states that, in view of the fact that there is war between two different groups of people over certain pictures that portray the white slave traffic, now being shown in New York, two of the editors went to see *one* of these films. What I would like to know is why these two editors based their judgment on only one film, and that not the one over which there has been the greatest contention. 'The Traffic in Souls' is by far the least objectionable of all the films that are being run. It was passed by the Board of Censors. This film is melodramatic in character and of a distinctly moral tone. As The Outlook says, it is false in some particulars of fact. Unfortunately, there is not always a good-looking hero who arrives in time to save single-handed the innocent victims; nor are all the villains caught and placed behind the bars. But, except for this unlikeness to life and for the fact that it may contribute towards the wave of hysteria which is spreading among the girls, I cannot see that this particular film will do harm. Indeed, I think it may be of value in the smaller cities and towns throughout the country, where it will give a warning, both to girls and to their parents, of the dangers awaiting young girls who come alone to our great cities. But this is only one of the films. In another film the victim is spoken to by a woman whom she meets while traveling, and is finally rescued by a man whose acquaintance she has also made on her journey. The lesson a girl might very easily take from this film is, 'Don't speak to a strange woman, but it is all right to speak to a strange man.' However, the really harmful play was the one which ran under the title of 'The Inside of the White Slave Traffic.' . . . Three performances of this I attended in the afternoon. Each time at least three-quarters of the audience was composed of men. There were so few women present that I felt conspicuous. What class of men can afford to spend two hours of an afternoon at a moving-picture show? Surely not those whose minds are on business. Many seemed to gloat over the horrors portrayed. I could not help but feel that the lesson which many men learned from 'The Inside of the White Slave Traffic' was that any man was a fool to work hard for little money when it is so easy to get a girl who will support him in comfort and enable him to 'live like a gentleman.' The Outlook is

so sane and fair in its judgments that it is all the more to be regretted that the two editors did not visit *all* of the films dealing with the white slave traffic, or at least those which have been most severely criticised, before giving the stamp of its approval to films dealing with the subject."

A DANGEROUS PHOTO DRAMA

The third letter, from Mr. James Bronson Reynolds, is an excellent discussion of the dangers arising from the abuse of the moving pictures as a means for public instruction. The Outlook is quite as emphatic as Mr. Reynolds and Miss Smith in its belief that such a film as "The Inside of the White Slave Traffic" is a pernicious offense against decency. Such a film represents the commercialization of the subject and the exploitation of it for private gain in the worst degree. We are not convinced, however, by Mr. Reynolds's letter that the moving-picture machine is an improper medium for educating the public in this fundamental and vitally important subject. Mr. Reynolds's letter follows:

"I agree with The Outlook that the present generation has not been the first to discover the existence of sex, and that it has discovered important facts regarding the laws of sex and regarding its social manifestations. With our tendency to popularize everything that interests the public, we have popularized this new sex knowledge and the social problems which it reveals. To deny the right to popular discussion and presentation of this subject is vain. But a legitimate protest should be made in behalf of 'discrimination and balanced judgment,' and I urge stronger emphasis of these factors in regard to the exhibition of the sex problem in moving pictures.

"The majority of our public wants decency and not filth. A large majority of the fathers and mothers of the boys and girls who are crowding the 'movies' desire their children to see pictures that shall not demoralize and shall not encourage to crime. But there is a wide difference between imparting proper sex knowledge and portraying the lives of the procurer and the prostitute so as to make them attractive to thoughtless, pleasure-loving boys and girls already somewhat hardened by too much contact with street life.

"The Outlook thinks it hardly possible that a decent boy should see the horrors of the social evil and still link himself with that life. Of course the average boy does not become

a procurer, and certainly not at one jump. The steps are gradual in the downfall of boys and girls, but it must be borne in mind that the 'movies' attract not only the securely respectable, but boys and girls of the borderland no longer easily shocked. A large element of these are looking for 'easy money' and hate hard work. Shall we let the moving picture point the way and explain the method of this easy life? Discrimination demands that we think of the audience flocking into moving-picture shows and consider how this class of films will affect this audience.

"The writer saw 'The Traffic in Souls,' commended in your editorial. Though he found it in parts absolutely melodramatic and false in certain details, yet he agreed with *The Outlook* that observers 'could hardly leave the theater save with a heightened disgust' for the social evil.

"But regarding another film, entitled 'The Inside of the White Slave Traffic,' he reached, without hesitation, an opposite conclusion. This film lacked the good features of the first film, and he considered it both demoralizing and debauching to those of easy morals of both sexes. It portrayed the relatively luxurious life and successful methods of male traffickers. Young women plying their wretched trade brought money to their men, while the latter lolled in cafés with boon companions or wasted their dirty money in gambling resorts. A drug clerk was shown to leave his honest occupation for this shameless career. The life of the prostitute was not made quite so attractive. The leading woman, after experiencing the hardships of the prostitute's life, was placed in a position in a store, but gave it up at the end of the first week of service because the pay envelope contained less—probably much less—than her immoral life had yielded. Apparently, upon reflection, she preferred the life of prostitution to that of virtue with small pay. Incidentally a seduction scene and the 'crib' district of New Orleans were portrayed with an accuracy which left little to the imagination. If there is such a thing as indecency, these scenes were indecent. If young men became procurers because of the portrayal of the attractions of the trade, and young women gave up the drudgery and small pay of work in factory or store, they might justly charge that convincing reasons for their action had been given by this film.

"The presentation of the methods of thiev-

ing and the prosperity of successful thieves might with equal force be demanded in the name of freedom of thought and its free expression.

"For the sake of the honest parents of those boys and girls who crowd the 'movies,' and because of the danger to those boys and girls themselves, and for the sake of decency, I urge deliberate and careful discrimination. Such discrimination should be based on an understanding of the average audience visiting these pictures and the peculiar difficulties of presentation without harm in view of the inevitable sensationalism and melodrama of moving pictures.

"And I submit that we do well to question carefully if the moving picture, with its necessary limitations, is a wisely chosen medium for educating our youth regarding this fundamental and vitally important subject."

A CONSTRUCTIVE DISCUSSION BY A PRACTICAL IDEALIST

In our editorial of January 17 we referred to Mrs. Barclay Hazard's position in the matter of white slave films. We are more than glad, therefore, to have this opportunity of presenting her views so completely to our readers. In a note accompanying the following letter Mrs. Hazard writes: "I fully realize your point of view, but it seems to me that you only touch upon the fringe of the subject. My experience not only in this work but in connection with homes for deficient and delinquent children makes me particularly alive to the psychological danger involved in the exhibition of these films. As to our theaters, I have not touched upon them at all because I do not consider that the present plays are any more dangerous than any others which we have had for a long time on the boards. Unutterably vulgar though they may be. . . . theaters do not reach the same excessively impressionable class as is reached by the moving picture, which is my reason for opposing the latter so strongly."

To us the most vitally interesting part of Mrs. Hazard's discussion is that contained in her conclusion regarding the hope for reform and restoration to normal social relations which exists for unfortunate women. The method of reform to which she refers and which she herself has so ably put into practice may not have the sudden and apparent success which comes from an old-fashioned religious revival, but for enduring social value

there can be no question of comparison between the two methods of regeneration.

Mrs. Hazard's view of the matter is as follows:

"The question before the country in regard to the films claiming to show the inside history of the white slave traffic and kindred evils is not, as it is the fashion to say, a question of policy as to the method of dealing with the evil itself. Those who advocate this view of the situation say, with considerable plausibility, that for centuries we have been trying to hold in check the social evil by suppression. We have gone on the theory that with a certain kind of fire to admit light and air was only to quicken the flame, and, while smothering might not altogether subdue it, the danger of this method was considerably the less. They also claim that we have outgrown this theory, and that we now realize that publicity is a great weapon against dark and devious ways; that a free and open discussion of this subject not only tends to keep people from entering the life, but enlightens good people who have no temptations in such ways, but who have hitherto, through their innocence or ignorance, played into the hands of unscrupulous exploiters.

"If this were all that were involved, we should have a comparatively simple question to deal with. It is doubtful if among experienced workers there would be found any serious difference of opinion as to the advisability of letting in light on dark places, nor even of the advisability, trying as it may be, of calling things by their names, and no longer glossing over fearful diseases of the social body.

"Granting all these facts, we still protest against an exhibition to young, immature, and easily influenced minds of pictures which suggest a life which, though it may apparently end tragically, is extremely alluring to the youthful mind. Let us take, for example, the analogous case of films showing holdups, railway wrecks, cowboy fights, etc., the heroes of which are occasionally led even to the electric chair. But their final destination does not in the smallest degree discourage their would-be imitators among the boys of the community. Hardly a week passes that some enterprising boys are not arrested as runaways, having started out to capture and annihilate the wild Indians with the somewhat inadequate equipment of two dollars and forty cents and a rusty revolver. Did their activities end there, the amusing interest might be the one most obvious; but these same chil-

dren have been known to tie younger and weaker comrades to the stake and light bonfires, which have so injured the victims that several deaths are the record of this species of entertainment. Now, these boys are not necessarily either foolish and simple, as shown by the rusty revolver; nor are they inherently bloodthirsty and wicked, as might be indicated by the fire and stake. They are simply normal adventurous boys on whose minds the films made no impression except such as they chose to have made upon them. The human mind, even at a very early period of life, is intensely selective. There is much psychology in the Bible text, 'What went ye forth to see?' For what we go forth to see is what we do see; and what impression we take from pictures, from plays, from books, and even from music, is the impression that we choose to take.

"While this is true with normal, active-minded children of either sex, the subnormal child is necessarily infinitely more susceptible to such influences as have been described. No one can have been for any number of years in the work of helping unfortunate young women without realizing very forcibly what a very large percentage of them are what we used to call 'not just right,' or, as they say in New England, 'not all there.' While this has been an accepted fact among workers for some time, it is only recently that science has come forward and justified such impressions with proper terminology. We are now told that a very large percentage of wayward girls are 'border-line cases.' A smaller, but still sufficiently large, number go beyond this and may be properly classed as neurasthenics. The border-line class comprises girls who have very little active mentality. They are weak and unmoral rather than immoral; they show their lack of mental grasp by their inability to put cause and effect together. That is to say, the act at the moment is all that appeals to them, the unavoidable consequence appearing not to exist for them until it has come to pass. The neurasthenic, or what we used to call the hysterical person, needs no explanation, although it is beginning to be recognized that it is a disease requiring as much patience and skill in controlling as it would were the malady active mania.

WHERE THE DANGER LIES

"Bearing these two cases in mind, it is not difficult to see where the danger lies in

exhibiting films such as were recently censored out of Washington, but are freely exhibited in other cities, and the untold harm they can do. The girl of the border-line type, the type first named, goes to see these films. To her untrained, unbalanced, and extremely susceptible mentality the only appeal made by such pictures is one of allurements. Vanity, love of luxury, and craving for excitement are almost always present in this class of women. They therefore feel, if they can be said to think so far ahead, that they are willing to run any risks to attain the immediate result. Consequently what the psychologists call suggestion plays a much larger part in the lives of the border-line class than it is easy for ordinary people to comprehend.

"As to the effect on the neurasthenic, it is perhaps not best to go into it here. Suffice it to say that any physician with experience among such cases will testify to the immediate and serious physical results of this auto-suggestion.

"It sometimes seems to those intimately associated with this work that in our excitement over the young women involved we lose sight of the equal danger to the young men. Is it a greater disgrace to a family to have the daughter a prostitute than it is to have the son a procurer? This raises another objection to the exhibition of these films. A well-known man in New York, whose very tolerant view of life has been broadened by his profession, in talking to me of one of these films, said: 'I should not object so much to my daughters seeing these films as I should to my boys, for, after all, the girls in the films come to some bad end, but the young men sail along on seas of champagne with money pouring in and all the evidence, especially to the unthinking, of an easy, glorious existence. It seems to me that these films may well be called "a business college for procurers," and even those who are already in the profession may learn some new devices from the exhibition.' How will those who approve of these films meet this criticism? And why regard this situation only from the standpoint of the women?

WHERE PICTURE INSTRUCTION FAILS

"In no narrow-minded spirit, in no desire to shut our eyes to unfortunate facts and then say that they do not exist, are the objections contained in this letter made to the

exploitation of the social evil by sensational representations. Were it possible to show what was the real after-life of these girls, there might possibly be some excuse for their exhibition. It is not a sudden nor a dramatic end which comes to the great majority. The films cannot show the slow disintegration of nervous tissue; it cannot show the insidious advance of anæmic diseases, even though those incidental to the profession are avoided; it cannot show the hopeless, helpless longing for a return to normal conditions after it is too late; and these things constitute the real and unavoidable tragedy. Taking the brighter side, the pictures will not, because it is not interesting, exciting, or dramatic, show the narrow, thorny path which leads back to life. I firmly believe that, given a normal intelligence, restitution to ordinary life and restoration to normal social relations are always possible; it is nevertheless unwise to minimize the difficulties ahead. A picture showing girls washing dishes, scrubbing floors, making beds, and all without even the relaxation of a day out by themselves until they have absolutely proved themselves trustworthy—none of these things lend themselves to sensational exploitation, and yet these are the really important factors. Even when work is procured for these girls, and it is easier to obtain than is usually represented, they have still the struggle of reverting to regular hours and the steady discipline of a business organization.

"No sentimentality, no emotionalism over our 'dear unfortunate sisters,' is going to be of the smallest use to them or to the persons who, by indulging in these emotions, fancy they are displaying practical sympathy. Only an open-eyed facing of the problem, a problem as old as the world itself, can avail to do even the little that it is humanly possible can be done. The one inevitable result of over-emotionalism, over-sensationalism, is a reaction, and the very people who have been ready to look on every young woman brought into court as the victim of a wicked white-slaver, becoming disillusioned, will switch to the other extreme and regard all these girls as victims of their own inherent viciousness. Either extreme makes the work of the really sincere and thoughtful in this field infinitely harder. Therefore let us not, in our desire to appear broad-minded, encourage sensationalism which reaches so vast a multitude of the unthinking as do the moving-picture films."

MAKING THE SEA SAFER

BY GREGORY MASON AND WALTER S. HIATT

WHEN the steamer Nantucket, in the fog off the Virginia capes, broke the back of the liner Monroe with one punch from her bow that sent forty-one men and women to Neptune's graveyard, another chapter was added to the record of man's helplessness on the ocean.

Year after year ships drive each other to the bottom, or tear out their sides on icebergs, rocks, or derelicts, or are destroyed by the combustion of their own cargoes. A General Slocum burns up, and men learn that a rotten life-preserver is a device for murder, pure and simple; a Titanic is lost, and the lesson is brought home that lifeboats are as much a necessity to a liner as life-preservers are to a harbor-plying vessel; a Volturno burns, with the grim moral that a lifeboat that can't be launched is no better than no lifeboat at all.

Hardly a month passes but some incident occurs that brings out the existence of another peril that lurks for those who travel by water. Thus the giant Olympic and the smaller Philadelphia passed each other recently a few hundred miles out of New York. The ships were so close that the voice of a man shouting on either could have been heard on the other. The Philadelphia saluted her sister by blowing her whistle three times. The Olympic answered the salute. The bridge officer of the Philadelphia saw the steam swarming about the Olympic's whistle. Yet no sound reached him from a whistle which he knew should be heard at least three miles.

Puzzled by this fact, and alarmed by its possibilities, as, say, in case of fog or darkness, when neither vessel could be seen, he sought for an explanation. Turning the matter over in his mind, he remembered the Board of Trade investigation into complaints that the fog whistle at Holyhead, in the Irish Channel, was improperly operated. Vessel captains who just missed going ashore there in heavy fogs testified that they could not at all times hear the whistle. After close investigation and many tests, the conclusion was reached that vessels were sometimes in a sound vacuum, the sound-waves striking the surface of the water and then skipping high into the air, perhaps not striking the water for another half-mile. Any vessel between

these two striking points evidently could not hear the signal. Had the Olympic and the Philadelphia been traveling towards each other in fog or darkness, a collision would have been possible under such circumstances. Perhaps it was such a trick of nature as this that prevented the officers of the ill-fated Monroe from hearing all the signals of the Nantucket, as alleged in newspaper accounts of the accident.

The average American regards the problem of making water travel safer as of concern only to the wealthy and to immigrants. Titanics may sink and Volturnos may burn, but he makes an ocean trip but once or twice in a lifetime. So why should he worry? He considers the trips made coastwise in the Atlantic or the Pacific or on the Great Lakes as too short to count. Nor does he consider the excursion trips of summer on harbor or river boats about Boston, Baltimore, Philadelphia, New Orleans, or Seattle.

Suppose we pass the two million people carried yearly across the North Atlantic and the half-million to Cuba, Mexico, to the Panama Canal, to Japan and other points in the Pacific. We then have left some ten millions who make the longer summer excursions on inland waters. More than three hundred millions are carried on all vessels reporting to the United States Steamboat Inspection Service.

As a matter of fact, experience has shown that to venture into a ferry-boat or river steamer is about as dangerous as to embark for Europe in an ocean greyhound. The title of this article, but for euphony's sake, might better read "Making Water Travel Safer."

For every case of loss of life on a ship at sea one may be mentioned where the fatality occurred on a vessel in a lake, river, or harbor. The Slocum disaster, the sinking of the steamer Primus on the river Elbe, when one hundred and twelve people died, the wrecking of the Rio de Janeiro in San Francisco Harbor with the loss of one hundred and twenty-eight lives, are only a few of the cases in which catastrophe has overtaken a vessel within easy reach of *terra firma*.

No finite mind can foresee all the possible hazards to which a ship is subject. For

instance, in January, 1912, the United States cruiser Colorado was damaged in the harbor of Honolulu by collision with the steamer Cleveland. It is a safe harbor, and both ships were in charge of competent navigating officers. But control was lost of the Cleveland because of a situation that may never happen again. Her pilot was stricken and died right on the bridge, while in charge of her.

Again, the officer in charge of the work of keeping clear the ship channels of New York Harbor, while patrolling in a tugboat just off Sandy Hook, was stranded right in the main ship channel daily used by seagoing liners with a draught of thirty to forty feet. Investigation showed that an overturned barge had formed a nucleus for the forming of a sand-bar in this channel which was charted as deep enough for the biggest ship. The bar was of sufficient size to have wrecked such a ship going even at slow speed, had she struck there.

"Man marks the earth with ruin—his control stops with the shore," sang the poet some years ago; and while there is still a large measure of truth in his words, as outlined in the foregoing pages, palpable and encouraging progress has been made since the day of Byron, and there is evidence that much further advance is at hand. The two great classes of accidents at sea are fires and collisions, the ratio of the former to the latter being one to three, if a list of the ships in disaster, registered at Lloyds, is taken as a base.

If an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure on land, it is worth a ton on the water; and even more important than the strengthening of the hulls of vessels to withstand the shock of collision, and the perfecting of a system of launching lifeboats in a heavy sea so that passengers and crew can get clear of a burning vessel, is the preventing of these two sea scourges, collision and fire.

On the larger ocean passenger ships special fire watchmen are employed to patrol the ship, both at sea and at dock. A most effective step in fire protection has been taken by the Hamburg-American Line, which will coat the steel of its ships with a composition of isinglass, cotton, iron dust, and wood. This composition will protect the steel against destructive rusting in secret places, and also protect it against heat. Steel, it has been noted in many fires, bends easily under high temperature, and often will not resist fire so well as an oaken post. In addition, the luxu-

rious fittings of the cabins and saloons will be fireproofed, as have been theater curtains and scenery since the Iroquois Theater fire of Chicago.

With due care taken to prevent fires, there are varied means for fighting it. Should the smoke indicator on the bridge betray a fire in the hold, the officer in charge can press a button by means of which steam can be poured into this particular hold to smother the fire. If the fire is not put out immediately, then salt water, which is better than fresh water for such purpose, can be played on the fire through hose that have the same strength as those used in the best land fire departments.

The captains of all passenger-carrying vessels are required by law to hold fire drills at frequent intervals, and most of the larger ships are provided with elaborate automatic sprinkler systems.

The greatest peril of the sea will always be that of collision. A ship may be unsinkable, she may be reasonably fire-proof, but with a hundred thousand ships crowding the seas of the world, making more than a million voyages a year, no ship is ever safe from this hazard. Ice, fogs, and dark nights are responsible in the main for these collisions. The striking force of a liner of the size of the Titanic at full speed is two million foot tons, or equal to the discharge of forty big guns. Such force varies as the square of the velocity. A vessel traveling at sixteen knots strikes with four times her force at eight knots.

Provision against collision involves the routing of the Atlantic lanes, the extension of wireless to cargo ships, regulation of reckless speeding, the employ of more lookout men, more signal lights, and more competent seamen on deck.

As early as 1889, at the International Marine Conference at Washington, it was recommended that derelicts met with in the waters of the North Atlantic, especially along a line west of Cape Race and the Bermuda Islands, should be destroyed by vessels of governments with commerce in these waters. No action was taken until 1906, when Congress authorized the building of the revenue cutter Seneca as a derelict destroyer, to be aided by other revenue cutters. Since the Titanic disaster this service has been extended to making wireless reports on the movements of ice-fields. During the past five years ending June 30, 1913, the revenue cutters have removed 140 obstructions to navigation,

of which twenty-four were derelict vessels and the remainder sunken wrecks or floating wreckage.

In reporting the removal of these derelicts, Captain E. P. Bertholf, Commandant of the United States Revenue Cutter Service, said: "These derelicts drift north and east in the Gulf Stream, and were it not for the fact that the United States Government provides means for removing or destroying them, a large number would eventually be carried away from the United States coasts into mid-ocean, to become a serious and constant menace to transatlantic shipping."

The recent conference at London of representatives of maritime nations resolved that this work of locating ice and derelicts in the Atlantic and destroying the latter should be shared by all the nations affected by it, but that the United States should continue to supervise it.

Another important decision of this Conference was that a continuous watch should be kept by all vessels of over thirteen knots speed carrying more than two hundred passengers and making voyages of more than five hundred miles between two ports, and by all other passenger ships when more than five hundred miles from land, and by all cargo boats on voyages that lead them more than a thousand miles from land.

When everything possible has been done to prevent accidents, it remains to reduce to a minimum the life and property loss attendant on such accidents as will happen even to the best of ships and navigators. There are three important items to be considered in this regard: first, means of calling help from shore or from other vessels; second, devices for escaping safely from a sinking vessel; and, third, means of so constructing a vessel that it won't sink no matter how hard hit.

Marconi has put it in the power of a sinking vessel to summon aid from a distance of even hundreds of miles; he has given disaster-stricken sailormen a combination fire alarm and police whistle that can be heard around the world. The passenger on the wireless-equipped ship need no longer fear wreck that will mean drifting for days on a raft in mid-ocean, anxiously scanning the horizon for a speck of smoke or sail from a ship that may see his signal, wigwagged with shirt and oar, or may not see it and drop out of sight on the horizon. The law passed by Congress soon after the Titanic tragedy requiring every ship leaving an American port and

carrying fifty or more persons, including both passengers and crew, to carry a radio outfit capable of "sending" one hundred miles and two wireless operators, one or the other of whom shall be on duty at all times, has made it extremely unlikely that a vessel using the frequented steamer lanes will ever call in vain for help.

Also as a result of the sinking of the Titanic, there are now enough lifeboats and rafts on all transoceanic liners and on many coastwise steamers to accommodate every soul carried. Although the quantity test is well met, there might be an improvement in the quality of most of these lifeboats. Most of these small craft are open boats, built more for buoyancy than for seaworthiness. Some are and others are not unsinkable. Practically all of them are dependent on human muscle or the winds of the sea for motive power. Some of the German liners, however, have lifeboats equipped with gasoline engines and small wireless outfits capable of sending messages fifty to a hundred miles. Such boats, provided as they are with three days' fuel, are practically certain to catch the eye or ear of some steamer and be picked up, where the chances are great that the ordinary oar-propelled lifeboat without wireless outfit will be lost from sight and hearing of all potential rescuers.

For many years the United States Life-Saving Service, both on lakes and oceans, has used a power-driven, non-sinkable, self-bailing and self-righting lifeboat, designed by Captain McLellan, the senior inspector of the Life-Saving Service. When used from stations on inland waters, these craft have a range of 150 to 200 miles instead of the five or ten mile range of the oar-propelled boat, and, moreover, are capable of towing half a dozen powerless lifeboats, or even a ship, as has actually been done.

The United States Government is now considering the adoption of an improvement on this open lifeboat, known as the McLellan Lifeboat Cruiser, and designed by Captain McLellan and Mr. C. D. Holmes. This cruiser has the same lines and proportions as the open boat, and, like her, is self-righting and self-bailing, but has a large cabin forward and a covered compartment for the engine aft. Passengers are to be packed into the cabin, which is padded, and which has a normal capacity of fully forty people, although the entire length of the boat is only thirty-six feet. At a pinch the little ship will

carry a hundred persons if some of them roost on the house. With a normal load, however, only the one man required to manage the cruiser would be obliged to be on deck facing the fury of wind and sea. The boat has a six-cylinder, 35-horse-power engine, sails for emergency motive power, and is equipped with a small wireless outfit.

Here is a lifeboat that experts are unanimous in saying could live in any kind of a sea and sustain its occupants in comparative comfort—something the open boat cannot do. Unfortunately, however, a lifeboat that cannot be launched might just as well be ashore as on a ship's davits, and there is yet to be found a contrivance that is proved to launch boats safely from the high deck of a liner when a heavy sea is running. Owing to this fact, all sorts of supplementary means of escape from a sinking ship have been suggested—aeroplanes, huge globes to be thrown overboard with human freight inside, and what not. Only one has proved practicable, and that is barred by its great expense. It consists in the equipment of a ship with deck-houses and bridge, made on an air-tight double bottom like a great raft, which is detachable from the ship proper so that it will float off serenely when the vessel sinks. As already stated, however, this device has not found favor with the ship-owners because of the expense of constructing it.

The latest invention intended to make the launching of lifeboats in rough weather a feasible undertaking is the suggestion of Mr. C. D. Holmes. It consists of a monorail to run down each side of a ship, the lifeboat to be carried onto it by a double-arm davit run by the ship's loading boom. The lifeboats are to be run into the davit, one at a time, from a track running the length of the boat deck. Once on the monorail, with the passengers locked in the cabin, it is claimed that the boat can be released from the rail at any instant by means of a releasing device in the control of the seaman in charge of the boat, who must stay on deck and take his medicine. For a number of reasons this invention seems to many impracticable. The monorail would interfere with docking unless it were collapsible, and in that case it would hardly be strong enough to withstand the banging of heavy seas. From the position which the lifeboat must take on the monorail it is bound to enter the water end first rather than on an even keel, in which case the chances would be great of its being

thrown against the liner's sides and smashed like an eggshell before its propeller caught the water. Until this or some other device is unquestionably proved practicable we must still rely on the better forms of the regulation ship's davit for launching lifeboats. The lower the position of the lifeboat on a liner, the less are the chances of a spill, however, and, realizing this, some ship-builders have cut boat decks into the hulls of their vessels near the water-line.

In regard to lifeboats and the manning of them, the so-called "Seaman's Bill," now before Congress, provides that there shall be two able seamen of at least three years' experience at sea or on the Great Lakes to every lifeboat carried by a passenger vessel. This is a most unfortunate stipulation, for by it a ship captain is obliged to carry an inordinate number of able seamen, often unnecessarily so far as the purpose of the law to provide for the adequate manning of lifeboats is concerned. The able seaman of sailing days was a boatman, but many of the able seamen of steamships are no boatmen at all, whereas the other members of the crew—stewards, cooks, firemen, etc.—are often excellent boatmen and could be used on the lifeboats whenever needed there. As Captain McLellan, of the Life-Saving Service, once remarked in his best quizzical manner, "The only difference between a scullion and a seaman nowadays is that one washes dishes and the other washes decks."

Whatever a ship's life-saving equipment may be, however, the importance of frequent drill of the men that handle it and of the maintenance of a high order of discipline among them can hardly be overestimated. In an official document relating to safety at sea, Secretary of Commerce Redfield said: "In the last analysis the efficacy of all material precautions against marine disasters depends on the efficiency of the officers and crew who handle the ship and all that goes with it." Unfortunately, not every liner has enough officers so that every one can get the amount of rest that a man must have if his eyes and ears are to be as keen as they should be when he is on the bridge. The Olympic and Imperator set a good example in this respect by carrying, not one captain, but several, so that the old strain on a captain who used to spend two or three sleepless days on the bridge in bad weather may be lessened. It is but lately that lookouts at the masthead

(Continued on page following illustrations)

Current Events Pictorially Treated

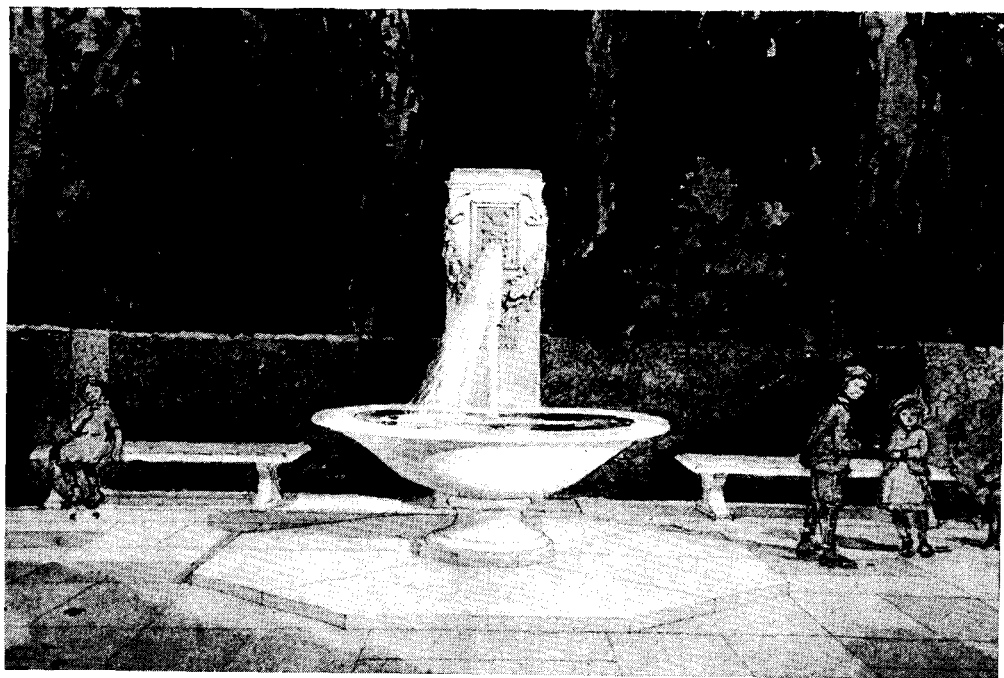


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A HERO OF THE WIRELESS SERVICE

This young man, Ferdinand J. Kuehn, was the senior operator of the wireless telegraph on the ill-fated steamship Monroe, which foundered as a result of collision with the Nantucket. He stood by his instruments to the last, and when in the act of jumping off the doomed vessel he gave up his life-preserver to a woman, and went down with his ship as a result of his self-sacrifice. The noble record of many wireless operators in time of danger was worthily maintained by him.

See article in this issue on lessons of the Monroe disaster concerning safety at sea



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A MEMORIAL TO WIRELESS OPERATORS

This memorial fountain, designed by Hewitt & Bottomley, architects, is to be erected in Battery Park in New York City, in honor of wireless operators lost at sea. It will include in the list of names inscribed that of Ferdinand Kuehn, whose picture is on the preceding page



ONE PLAN FOR MAKING AN UNSINKABLE SHIP

This shows the two hulls of the Olympic, the inner one being at the right, the outer at the left. In case of collision with another ship or with an iceberg, the inner shell of the vessel will remain intact after the outer one is pierced
See article in this issue on making the sea safer



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RACE BETWEEN AN ICE YACHT AND A SCOOTER AUTO ON THE HUDSON RIVER



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LAWN TENNIS AT PALM BEACH, FLORIDA

WINTER SPORTS IN NORTH AND SOUTH



PORTRAIT STATUETTE

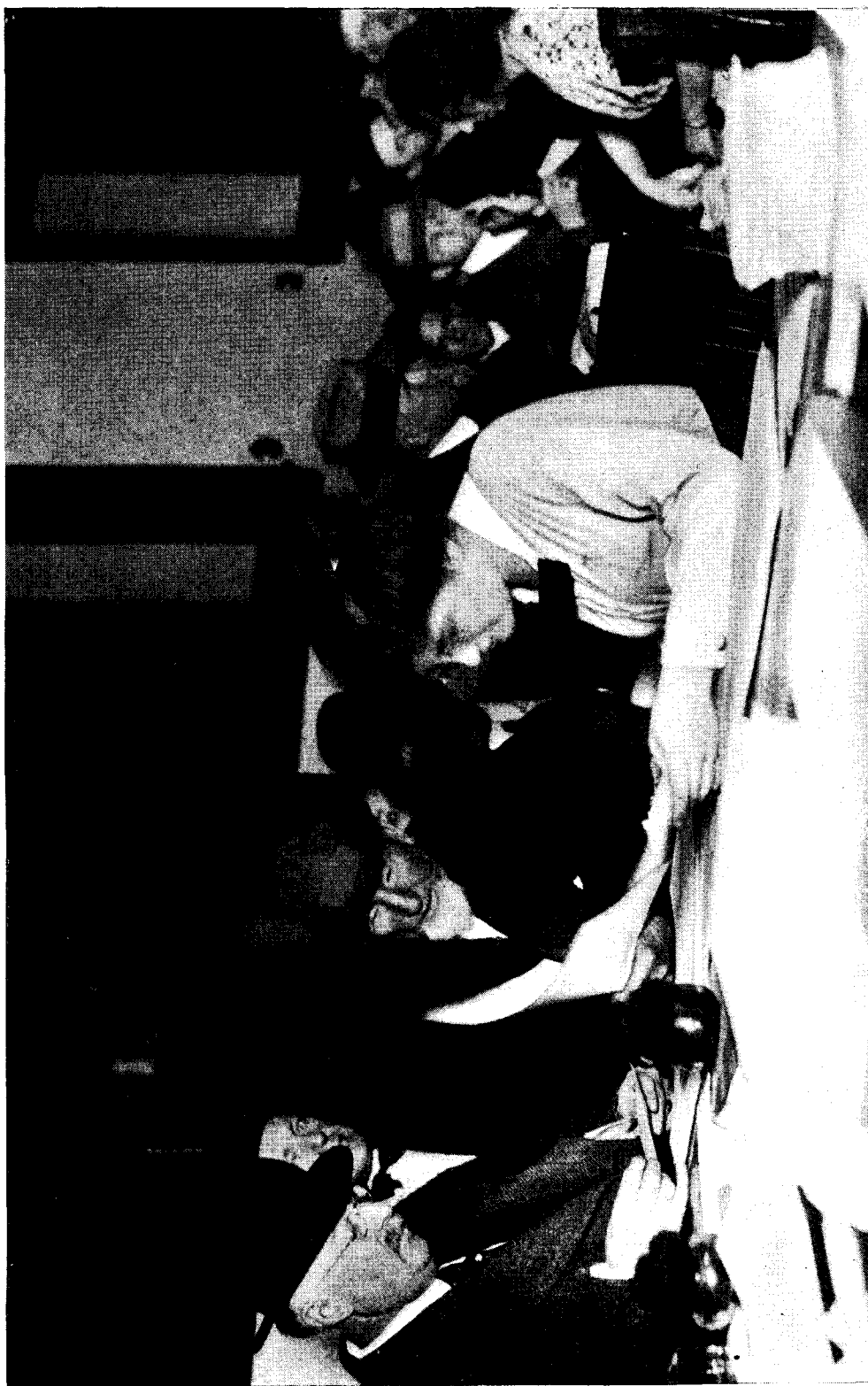
TWO NOTABLE EXAMPLES OF THE



PLAYFULNESS

Paul Manship, specimens of whose work are shown on these pages, was born in St. Paul, Minnesota, in 1886; in 1909 he was awarded the "Prix de Rome;" in the recent exhibition of the National Academy of Design in New York City he took the Helen Foster Barnett prize, the only award in sculpture offered by the Academy. See editorial pages for further comment

WORK OF A YOUNG AMERICAN SCULPTOR

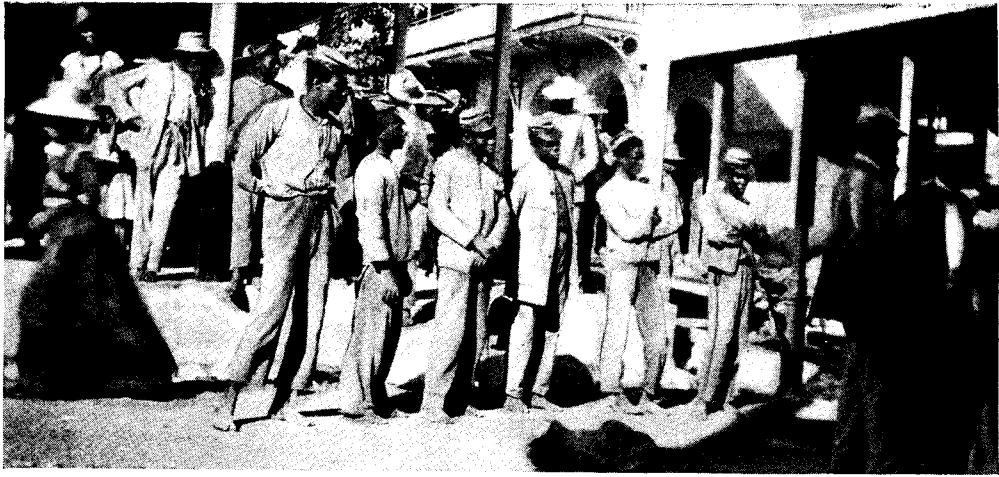


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WORKING ON THE INCOME TAX PUZZLE

Many information-seekers call at the office of the Collector of Internal Revenue in New York City to get enlightenment about their taxes under the new law. Courteous young women of a mathematical turn of mind try to make the application of the law clear to all inquirers, as shown in the picture, which represents an actual scene in the Collector's office

See editorial comment elsewhere



THE CITY'S POLICE FORCE



TROOPS LINED UP FOR INSPECTION



PHOTOGRAPHS BY EDWARD DELK

THE ARMY ON THE MARCH

IN HAITI, LAND OF REVOLUTIONS

These pictures of different phases of military and official life in this Black Republic were taken recently in the city of Jacmel. Note that of the soldiers' garb all that can be called uniform is the caps

See editorial pages



SANTA MARIA, ONE OF THE SMALLER TOWNS THROUGH WHICH MR. ROOSEVELT PASSED ON THE RAILWAY



PHOTOGRAPH BY F. HARPER

DISCUSSING CIVIC PROBLEMS WITH THE MAYOR OF CRUZ ALTA

MR. ROOSEVELT IN SOUTHERN BRAZIL

See article elsewhere

have been tested for sobriety, eyesight, and hearing. In urging a law requiring more seamen and better pay for them, Andrew Furuseth, President of the Seamen's Union, recently said to the Marine Committee of the House of Representatives: "If you want more safety you must insist that there shall be a standard of individual efficiency for crews. Insist that those men shall have a decent place to live, eat, and sleep in, and that it shall be so placed that they can all come on deck quickly when needed."

Given an able captain and an efficient crew, however, a vessel's greatest security against destruction, like a prize-fighter's, lies in sheer strength of body. Two principal structural contrivances are used in building a ship to give her this strength—"double skins" and bulkheads. The "double skin" is another safety measure that has come into popularity since the Titanic catastrophe. (A picture of a section of this double skin is shown on another page.) Of course it is nothing more than a *comparative* safety measure: a sufficiently "wicked" ice snag would slash two "skins" as easily as one. All the Cunarders are to have double skins hereafter, and several other companies have announced that their ships will have them also. Every war-ship to be built by Uncle Sam is to have at least a double bottom, if not an entire inner and outer cuticle.

The subject of bulkheads has provided no end of controversial food for newspaper writers and other self-constituted authorities on nautical matters. Should a ship have longitudinal or transverse bulkheads? The answer is "both," and most ships have both. Practically all these bulkheads, however, are pierced by doors for purposes of communication, and in cases of accident these doors frequently jam, or stick. Of course a bulkhead with an open door is no bulkhead at all. If newspaper reports can be trusted, recalcitrant bulkhead doors hastened the sinking of both the *Volturno* and the *Monroe*.

According to ship-builders and naval architects, the greatest hope for a larger degree of safety in water travel than is at present given to passengers lies in improved ship

construction, in regard to bulkheads particularly. It is possible to give a vessel so many of these water-tight compartments that though several are filled she will float still; and in fact only recently the forward portion of the steamer *Oklahoma*, which was broken in two by a gale off the New Jersey coast, remained above water for three days after the accident, and sank only before the bombardment of the derelict destroyer *Seneca*.

To be "sure fire," however, bulkheads should have doors only at a considerable distance above the water-line. This would seriously impede the passage of persons walking through the ship, who would be obliged to climb up ubiquitous stairways to get from compartment to compartment. In this consideration lies the secret of the problem of "making the sea safer." The sea will be safer just as soon as the traveling public wills it, and no sooner. The qualities that a passenger seeks in a ship to-day are: first, speed; second, comfort; and, last, safety. He can have safety first whenever he desires it. He can have the unsinkable ship as soon as he is willing to sacrifice palm gardens, swimming pools, ball-rooms, and tennis courts. But ship-owners, like railway stockholders, are in business for profits, and there would be no profit to-day in an unsinkable ship built on the lines here suggested. She would rot at her dock while the fleet liner that is more a floating hotel than a ship burned her way back and forth over the Atlantic with only sufficient intermissions to fill her gaping bunkers.

Even with ships built as they now are the dangers of voyages would be less if the passengers demanded the same discipline and drill of crews that exists in the navy. You seldom hear of a battle-ship sinking because her bulkhead doors wouldn't close. Why? Because the doors are greased frequently and are tested almost daily.

It is up to the passenger. He can have what he wants—safety, and a little less speed and comfort, perhaps, or the last two qualities and an increased likelihood of awakening some night to find the ocean in his stateroom and in his ears the cry, "To the lifeboats, and every man for himself!"

THE MAN FROM KABUL

BY RABINDRANATH TAGORE

There has just come out of Moscow a volume bearing the title "Orienta Almanaka," which may be translated "A Gift from the Orient." It is a collection of tales, episodes, poems, fables, myths, and sketches selected from the literature of the Orient by representatives of twelve different peoples and languages and by them translated into a common tongue. This common tongue is Esperanto, the artificial language created by Dr. L. L. Zamenhof, of Warsaw, Poland, some twenty-five years ago. From this volume Mr. H. S. Hall has chosen for a second translation the story "The Man from Kabul," by Rabindranath Tagore, the Hindu poet recently honored with the Nobel Prize. His writings have been discussed at some length in The Outlook. The original translation into Esperanto from the Hindustani was made by Irach Jenuangir Sorabji, of Benares, India. This is the first publication of this story in English.—THE EDITORS.

MY little daughter Mini, when she was about five years old, simply could not live without chattering. I really do not believe she ever remained silent for a whole minute in all her young life. Her mother was often annoyed by her ceaseless babble, and wished to stop it, but I could never feel that way. It was so contrary to nature to see Mini quiet that I could not long endure her silence. My talk with her, you may be sure, was always lively enough.

One morning when I was busy on the seventeenth chapter of my new novel, Mini stole quietly into my room, approached my chair, and, putting her little hand into mine, said, "Papa, Ramdajal, our porter, calls a crow a crew! He doesn't know anything, does he?"

Before I could explain the philological difference between the several sounds of the vowels in our language she began to ask other questions.

"Only think, papa," she said, "Bhola says there is an elephant in the clouds, and that he blows water out of his trunk and makes it rain!"

And in the same instant, changing the subject, "Papa, what is the relation of mamma with you?"

"A lawful one, my dear," I managed to reply, with gravity. "Now run and play with Bhola, Mini. I am busy."

Through my study window I could see the street. My little daughter seated herself at my feet near the table, and began playing, patting her knees with her hands, and murmuring to herself. I worked away at my seventeenth chapter—the chapter in which

Pratap Singh, the hero, seizes Kanchanalatan, the heroine, in his arms, and is about to fly with her through the third-story window of the castle—but suddenly Mini left off her play and ran to the window, crying out, "Kabulano! Kabulano!" And, in fact, there was a Kabulian passing by in the street below at that minute. He was wearing the broad, loose garments and the huge turban of his native land, Kabul. On his back he bore a large bag, and in his hand were some raisin boxes.

I cannot explain what feeling had seized hold of my little daughter, when she saw this man, that she began to call to him loudly.

"Oh, dear!" I thought. "He will, without a doubt, come in, and my seventeenth chapter will never be finished!"

Just at that moment the Kabulian turned around and looked up at the child. But when she saw his face, she was beside herself with terror, and, turning, fled to the protection of her mother. She had, apparently, believed that the giant was carrying two or three other children like herself in his great sack. Meanwhile the peddler had entered the house, and he now saluted me smilingly.

Although my hero and heroine were in a very critical situation at that moment, still my first impulse was to cease from my labor and purchase something from the peddler, since he had been called. I therefore bought a few little things, and began to speak with him concerning the Amir, Abd-ur-Rahman, and to talk about the Russians, the English, the boundary dispute.

As he was going away he asked, "But where is the little girl, sir?"

I thought that Mini ought to put away her senseless fear, so I called to her to come in. She obeyed, but she stood very close to my chair, looking curiously at the Kabulan and his bag. He offered to treat her with nuts and raisins, but she would not be tempted, and she only held herself closer to me, with all her doubts and fears increased.

Such was their first meeting.

But one morning not many days afterwards, as I was stepping out of the house, I was greatly surprised to find Mini sitting on a bench near the door, laughing and chattering, with the giant Kabulan at her feet. It doubtless seemed to her that never in all her life had she had such a patient listener as this man—except, of course, her father! Already her apron was full of almonds and raisins, the gift of her visitor.

“Why do you give them to her?” I asked, and, taking a coin from my purse, I put it into his hand. The man accepted it without a word and dropped it into his pocket.

But, alas! when I came home an hour after, I found that my coin had been causing unheard-of confusion, for the Kabulan had given it to Mini, and her mother, catching sight of the bright round silver piece, had seized the little girl and demanded, “Where did you get that *okana*?”

“The Kabulan gave it to me,” replied Mini, gayly.

“The Kabulan gave it to you?” cried the mother, greatly shocked. “Oh, Mini, how dared you accept it from him?”

It was at that moment I entered the room, and at once I began to shield my daughter from the unhappiness that was threatening her. Then I began to examine into the affair.

This was not the first nor the second time they had met, I discovered. The Kabulan had conquered Mini’s first fears through wise gifts of almonds and raisins. Now they were great friends.

They had a number of curious jokes which seemed to give them the greatest pleasure. Sitting near him and looking down upon his gigantic figure, Mini would ripple with laughter, and then begin:

“Oh, Kabulano! Oh, Kabulano! What have you in your great bag?”

Then the Kabulan would reply, with the nasal accent of the mountaineer, “An elephant!”

Really there was little cause for amusement here, but how they both did enjoy that joke!

For me there was always something touching in this babbling of the little child with the big, full-grown man.

Now the Kabulan, evidently not wishing to be outdone, would begin on his side:

“Missy, when will you come to your father-in-law?”

The majority of Hindu girls know all about the father-in-law at a very early age. But we were somewhat modern, and we had therefore concealed this subject from our daughter, so that Mini was now a little confused by this question. But, hiding her confusion, she answered spiritedly, “Why, are you intending to go there?”

Now among the Kabulans the expression “At your father-in-law’s” has a double significance, as it is there used in a slangy sense for “jail,” the place where they give us such careful attention and entertain us quite free of charge. It was according to that sense that the big, wandering peddler understood my daughter’s question.

“Ha!” he exclaimed, shaking his fist at some invisible policeman; “I shall thrash my father-in-law!”

Hearing that, and in her imagination seeing the unhappy beaten relative, Mini exploded with laughter, shriek following shriek, her big, terror-striking friend laughing with her.

It was then autumn—the time of year when the kings of old set out to fight and conquer—and I, though never moving out of my little corner in Calcutta, hugged with complacency the thought of traveling throughout the whole world. Even hearing the mere mention of a foreign land caused my heart to beat more rapidly, and, catching sight of a foreigner in the street, I straightway began to weave a tapestry of dream about the mountains, the valleys, and the forests of his distant home. I visualized his little hut, I considered the free and independent life he led in his far-away, savage country. And it seemed the more clearly these pictures of travel stood out in my spiritual vision, passing and repassing in my mind, the more startling did any proposal of an actual excursion strike upon me—such a vegetative life was I living. In the presence of the Kabulan I was immediately transported into Kabul, at the foot of the treeless mountains, whose narrow gorges wind and twist in and out between their lofty heights. There, in my mind’s eye, I saw the trains of camels with their loads of commercial products, directed

by turbaned merchants—some of them carried old-style firearms, others carried lances—traveling down into the plains. I could see—but at that moment the mother of Mini interrupted me, beseeching me with tears, “Guard yourself against that man!”

It is too bad that Mini’s mother is such a timorous woman. Whenever she hears a noise in the street, or sees men approaching the house, she immediately concludes that they are thieves, or drunkards, or snakes, or tigers, or the malaria, or locusts, or worms, or English seamen. Even after the experience of years she is not able to control her fear. And she was filled with doubt concerning the Kabulan, and she would beg of me that I watch him closely at all times.

I quietly endeavored to make light of her fear, but she turned and in all seriousness propounded some grave questions to me:

“Are children never kidnapped?”

“Is it not true that slavery exists in Kabul?”

“And is it too much to believe that such a giant might carry off our little girl?”

I replied that, while such a thing was not wholly impossible, it was exceedingly improbable. But she was not satisfied, and her fear continued. Since, however, this fear was so unfounded, it did not seem right to refuse the man permission to enter the house, and, accordingly, the intimacy was not interrupted.

Once every year, in the middle of January, Rahmud, the Kabulan, was accustomed to return to his own country, and when that time approached he was always very busy, going from house to house, collecting his bills. However, he never failed to find time to come and chat with Mini every day.

Sometimes I was surprised as I would suddenly come upon the tall, loosely clothed man in some corner of a dark room, but when Mini would come running in, laughing and crying out her “Oh, Kabulano! Oh, Kabulano!” and when the two friends, so different in their ages, would seat themselves and begin their customary laughing and joking, I was at once tranquil in mind.

One morning, several days before the date fixed for the departure of the Kabulan, I was in my study correcting proof. It was chilly weather. The rays of the sun, coming through the window, fell upon my body and were indeed welcome. It was about eight o’clock, and the early promenaders in the

street had gone home. Suddenly I heard a racket below. Looking out, I beheld Rahmud, the Kabulan, being led along by two policemen, a great band of curious children following after. There were blood spots on the Kabulan’s garments, and one of the policemen was carrying a knife. Hurrying outside, I stopped them and demanded the meaning of the affair.

Partly from one, partly from the other, I learned that a neighbor owed the Kabulan some money for a Rampur shawl, but he had denied that he ever made any such purchase. During the dispute that followed Rahmud had assaulted him.

In a paroxysm of rage the Kabulan was applying every name imaginable to his enemy, when suddenly my daughter ran out upon the veranda with her customary cry, “Oh, Kabulano! Oh, Kabulano!”

Rahmud’s face lighted up with joy as he turned towards her. To-day he did not carry the big sack under his arm, and she could not, therefore, speak to him about the elephant. So she at once began with the second question, “Are you going to your father-in-law’s?”

Rahmud laughed and replied, “Yes, missy, that’s where I am going.” But, noticing that the reply did not amuse the little girl, he lifted up his handcuffed hands and said: “Oh, how I should like to trounce my father-in-law! But my hands are tied!”

For his bloodthirsty attack on his creditor Rahmud was sentenced to several years’ imprisonment.

Time passed away and Rahmud was no longer remembered. My customary labor occupied me in my old customary corner, and I never thought of the freedom-loving mountaineer who was spending his years in a prison. Even Mini, I am ashamed to say, forgot her old friend. New friendships occupied her life. As she grew up, she passed her time more and more with girls of her own age. So much of her time did she spend with them that she no longer came into her father’s study, as she had been accustomed to do. Now I seldom chatted with her.

Years went by. Again it was autumn, and we were preparing for the marriage of our Mini. The wedding was set to occur during the Puja festival. At the same time when Durga¹ would go home to Kailasha the light

¹ Durga, goddess of the Puja festival. After the festival she returns to her home in Kailasha, a mountain of the Himalayas.

of my home too would go away—away to the home of her husband, leaving the parental home in darkness.

It was a bright and beautiful morning. There was a feeling of cleanliness about the air after the rain, and the rays of the sun sparkled like pure gold. So brightly did the sun shine that its rays gave a beautiful brilliancy even to the somber-colored bricks of our Calcutta streets. From early dawn the wedding orchestra had been playing, and at every beat of the music my heart beat in unison. Every note made my heart grow heavier with the thought of the approaching separation. Mini would be married that evening!

From the first hour of the day noise and bustle had filled the house. The canopy had to be set up in the court on its bamboo supports: the tinkling candelabra had to be hung in every room and in the veranda; the excitement and the enthusiasm seemed to be limitless.

I was sitting in my study looking through my accounts when some one entered the room and, saluting me respectfully, came and stood before me. It was Rahmud, the Kabulano! At first sight I did not recognize him. He was not carrying his great bag now, nor was his hair long, and his bearing was not the same. But when he smiled, I remembered him at once.

“When did you come, Rahmud?” I asked.

“Last evening,” he replied. “I have been released from prison.”

The words struck unpleasantly upon my ears. I felt that the day would have been more auspiciously introduced had he not come.

“We are having a ceremonial affair at our house to-day,” I said. “Can you not come in another day?”

He immediately turned to go away, but when he came near the door he hesitated, then said, “Could I not see the little missy, sir, if only for a minute?”

He believed Mini was still the same little person whom he had known years before. He imagined her running to him, crying out, as was her custom, “Oh, Kabulano! Oh, Kabulano!” He imagined that they would still laugh and chat together just as they had done in the old days. Indeed, as a souvenir of those days, he was then carrying, carefully wrapped in a paper, some almonds and raisins which in some way he had obtained from a fellow-countryman,

his own supply having been scattered long ago.

Again I said, “There is a ceremonial affair at our house.”

His face clouded with pain. He looked at me a moment, then, murmuring “Good-morning,” passed out.

I felt sorry for him in his disappointment, and I was going to call him back, when I saw him returning. He came up to me, and, giving me the gift, said, “I brought it, sir, for the little missy. Will you please give it to her?”

I took it and was going to pay him, but he caught my hand, saying, “You are very kind, sir. Keep me in your memory; do not offer money to me. You have a little daughter; I, too, have one such as yours—in my home in Kabul. I think about her, therefore I do not bring these gifts to your little daughter for the sake of money.”

As he spoke he put his hand into his big, broad shawl and drew out a little piece of dirty paper. With great care he unfolded it and smoothed it out on the table with his hands. It showed a picture of a tiny hand—not a photograph, not a tracing, but the impression of a hand that had been covered with ink, then pressed, palm down, upon the paper. And so this touch of the hand of his own little daughter was always on his heart while he was wandering, year after year, through the streets of Calcutta, selling his wares.

The tears rose up into my eyes. I forgot that he was only a miserable fruit peddler from Kabul, while I was—but who, indeed, was I? Any one more important than he? He, too—was he not a father?

That impression of the little hand of his Parbati, made in her distant mountain home, called to mind my own Mini. I at once summoned her from the women’s apartments. They did not wish to let her come, but I could not listen to their arguments. Dressed in the red silk garment of her wedding day, with the sandal sign on her forehead, and adorned as one about to become a bride, Mini entered the room.

The Kabulano looked at her in wonder. He could never again enjoy with her the old friendship! Finally he smiled and said, “Missy, are you going to your father-in-law’s?”

But Mini now understood the significance of that phrase, and she did not, therefore, reply to him as she had done at other times.

The question made her blush, and she looked away from him as she stood there.

I remembered the day when Mini and the Kabul met for the first time, and I grew sad. After she had left the room Rahmud sighed and sat down upon the floor. The thought had suddenly come to him that his daughter, too, must have grown up during the long years of his absence, and he would now have to make friends with her anew. And what might have happened to her in those years!

The orchestra began to play, and the mild autumn sun shone brightly down upon us. But Rahmud sat in the little street in

Calcutta, while in vision he beheld the treeless mountains of Kabulistan.

I drew out a bank note and gave it to him, saying, "Return to your child, Rahmud! Go back to your native land, my friend, and may your reunion with your daughter bring luck to mine!"

Having done this, I found myself, for want of money, unable to carry out all the details of the marriage feast, and for that the women of the household were much annoyed. But for me the affair was all the more brilliant because of the thought that in the distant land of Kabul a long-lost father would soon be united with his only child.

IN SOUTHERNMOST BRAZIL

BY THEODORE ROOSEVELT

THE SEVENTH ARTICLE IN THE SOUTH AMERICAN SERIES

I—IN RIO GRANDE DO SUL

THE next two days we were in the State of Rio Grande do Sul, the southernmost State of Brazil. For the most part it was rolling prairie, dotted with groves of forest, the climate cool and delicious, evidently very healthy, and with only an occasional palm to show that we were still not very far from the tropics. It was much such a country as the well-watered parts of eastern Texas and Oklahoma. It already has a fair population, but there is much room for growth and increase.

There will eventually be an immense extension of the agricultural land. At present much of this land is still natural pasture under wire fences. Several times we saw parties of South American ostriches—rheas, as they are properly called—running beside the train. These birds add much to the appearance of the prairie, and here they are protected by law. There were herds of cattle, horses, and mules, and also sheep and swine. We passed gauchos guarding the herds; picturesque men in *serapes*, broad hats, and baggy trousers, often each carrying a long gun. They were consummate horsemen, and well mounted. The saddles differ from our stock saddles, particularly in having no horn, but in its place a kind of raised leather ridge on the pommel bent backward, usually embroi-

dered with silver. This ridge or false pommel, by the way, I did not find comfortable nor easy for a long journey.

The country everywhere showed prosperity and growth. There were isolated ranch houses, with trees all around them, some of the houses large and handsome. There were little villages, or stations. There were very attractive towns. At two of these last, Cruz Alta and Santa Maria, we stopped.¹ At the first I was met by the Intendente, a native Brazilian, who could not speak anything but Portuguese, evidently a very good fellow, and by one of the foremost citizens of the town, a German by birth. They took me through the town in their automobile, and it was as picturesque and attractive a place as possible. My German friend spoke Portuguese to the Intendente and German to me, so we held quite a fluent conversation. There was a strong German as well as a strong Italian element in the town, the Italians mixing with the Brazilians almost from the outset, and the Germans beginning the same process after one generation—my German host, for instance, mentioned that his son had married a Brazilian girl. In one shop we had an experience of precisely the kind that is so common in the United States. There was in the shop a pleasant-looking, tall, flaxen-haired

¹ See illustrated section.

girl whom we addressed in German, but she shook her head, explaining that she could talk only "Brazilian." She summoned her mother to speak to us in German. Evidently the position that the German immigrants held was a very good one, and there was the same friendly feeling between the natives and newcomers, or immigrants, that is characteristic of our own Western States.

At Santa Maria also I was taken to drive in an automobile. It is a really beautiful town, picturesquely situated in the neighborhood of bold hills or small mountains, with houses attractively built, and everything as clean as possible. I wish to reiterate how impressed I was by the cleanliness of most of these Brazilian towns, and by the friendly, courteous attitude of the citizens. They often said to me that they wished they had more energy of the kind we have in the United States; but I am bound to say that I saw many evidences of energy both among the native Brazilians and among the immigrants. The climate is delightful in this province—cool, equable, healthy.

In Santa Maria I was much interested in the practical proof given me of the broad toleration of the Brazilians in religious matters. In this respect they behave precisely as we do, and their relations with one another are precisely similar to those which in our own country make it natural for Father Zahm and me to be traveling together. Here in Santa Maria I was received by the Intendente, with whom I spoke in French, and by a colonel of engineers, a fine, soldierly-looking fellow, with whom I spoke in German. He was the son of German immigrants, but was himself a Brazilian pure and simple, who spoke German no better than he did French, if as well. In the course of the drive he showed me the Lutheran Church, mentioning casually that he was a member of the congregation. I mentioned in response that at Cruz Alta I had met a Methodist minister, by birth an Italian, who told me that his congregation was almost exclusively Brazilian, although with one German and one Italian family. The colonel thereupon pointed out to me the Evangelical church, and later I was introduced to the minister, a native Brazilian. He was an Episcopalian. I do not know whether he was only temporarily in charge of the church or not. There were several Catholic churches, of course, for the immense majority of the Christians are Catholics. But there are Protestant congregations throughout

Brazil, of several different denominations; and there are Jewish congregations; and there are also men who are Positivists, or who profess no creed; and all are treated alike.

I dwell purposely on the similarities between us at home and these friends of ours to the south, and the similarities in outlook of the respective countries. There are differences, of course. As I have said before, there are differences even between very closely allied and related peoples, and naturally there must be differences between nations whose founders came from southern Europe, and a nation the great bulk of whose original settlers came from northern Europe. But I feel that the resemblances are far more important than the differences, that the likenesses are greater than the points of unlikeness. Moreover, I feel that between us and them since the days of independence there has been a constant tendency towards, and not away from, one another in ideals and ways of thought and habits of life. The differences that remain are merely the remaining inheritances of different European cultures. Many things have been added to the nations of the North and the South since they have become nations, and since their people have lived on American soil. These things have tended to bring closer together and to make each people more readily able to understand the other and to appreciate its ideals and ways of life.

This whole country, from São Paulo to the Uruguayan line, is already developing with much rapidity, and offers a great chance for further development. There is any amount of fine land: the climate is well adapted for the white race, and as yet there is much vacant space. I do not believe that our people realize in any adequate degree either the great progress that Brazil has already made and is now making, or the great future that lies before it.

II—A SEAPORT OF SOUTHERN BRAZIL

We visited Porto Alegre, the capital of the province of Rio Grande do Sul. It is a beautiful little city by the seacoast, between a river and a great lagoon, and as clean as possible, as most of these Brazilian cities are. The houses are of the usual type, painted and rather ornate, but very picturesque. There are many parks, a good hotel, and the whole aspect of the city, with its equable, sub-tropical climate, was most inviting. As everywhere, I was treated with the utmost courtesy

and hospitality, and I saw so much to interest me that it is rather difficult to write about it all. For instance, there is a good polytechnical school, with a staff of professors which includes not only Brazilians and Germans, but also a number of Americans; among these are one or two women teachers for the primary classes in the trade school. This polytechnic university has been in existence only a few years. It is already exercising a marked effect, and it will exercise a still greater effect in the future. It is giving the kind of education which is necessary to all peoples at the present day, but peculiarly necessary to Brazil in view both of the great opportunities before her and of the defects in the national character and temperament which she is now so manfully and successfully endeavoring to remove.

I was greeted by the representatives of the local Young Men's Christian Association, by native Brazilian ministers, both Episcopal and Methodist—the former of whom had started an excellent children's school—and by Miss Lamb, who is one of that band of devoted women representing the Methodist Episcopal Church (South) who have formed a chain of girls' schools in Brazil. Here, again, I was struck by the liberality and breadth shown by the Brazilians in religious matters, their attitude being precisely our own in this regard. The Catholic priests have a very high position in the community, and occasionally hold high civil office, to which they are elected precisely as their lay brethren are elected; but there is no discrimination against any creed. An interesting feature, very evident whenever I encountered considerable groups of men of learning, was the influence of the Positivists of the school of Comte. I have met two or three American and English Positivists; but here in Brazil Positivism has a hold which is really noteworthy. I do not know whether or not the same thing is true of other Latin Catholic countries.

Among the gentlemen who gave me much information was the British Consul, Dr. Dillon, a graduate of the Rush School of Medicine in Chicago. He has a position in the Brazilian immigration service, and told me a good deal about the immigrants. For some thirty-five years there has been a substantial and at times a heavy immigration into the State of Rio Grande do Sul. For many years the most numerous immigrants were the Germans and Italians. The Italians rapidly fused with the natives. The Ger-

mans preserved their separate individuality much longer, and where they settled in exclusive colonies have kept it to the present day. Yet the change is already working. It has affected very many, and it will undoubtedly affect the remainder. Practically all born on this side of the water are loyal Brazilians, and in the end they will, like all other citizens of Brazil, speak Portuguese as their mother tongue, and become merged in Brazilian citizenship. They form a most valuable element of that citizenship—as indeed they do in every country to which they come. Many are Catholics, but probably the majority are Lutherans, and an interesting feature of the situation is that their Lutheran church connections are not with the Lutherans of Germany, but with the Lutheran bodies of the United States. Of late years both the German and Italian immigrations have fallen off, the Italians coming here not being much more numerous at the present time than immigrants from Scandinavia and Holland, while there has been a great increase in the Russian immigrants. During the first half of the present year there were some five thousand immigrants, of whom nearly three thousand were Russians. Most of the Russians are Poles, but there are a few Lithuanians and other Russians, and a considerable number of Russian Jews. The latter have been sent out by private benevolence on the part of their compatriots, and I was interested to learn that most of them were established in agricultural colonies, and were working hard as tillers of the soil—a most admirable thing. The general opinion was that the Poles showed themselves to be good colonists, and there was considerable discussion among my various informants as to whether the Poles, the Germans, or the Italians were the best, each nationality having its champions.

There is a foundation of Indian blood in this settlement; although this does not necessarily mean that those having it have much more than have the Virginia families who are so proud of their descent from Pocahontás, though often they bear Indian names. The Intendente, an admirable officer who had served for fourteen years (an example to our own cities in the way of treating their public servants), himself bore an Indian name, although he showed no more trace of Indian blood than do these same families that are descended from Pocahontas. One of the attractive features of this picturesque city was

the way in which the entire families, and especially the pretty girls, of whom there seemed to be many, leaned out of their windows or from high balconies, looking down at the passers-by.

There are certain rumors, occasionally taken seriously, which really it hardly seems that it ought to be necessary to contradict. One of these rumors that I encountered more than once in Brazil was that the United States intended to protect the States around the Amazon in setting up a separate republic by themselves, while Germany was to be allowed to take the Rio Grande do Sul as an offset. It was at first difficult for me to make up my mind to answer such a question seriously; but I finally assured my questioners that I did not believe that in the entire one hundred million people of the United States there could be found one individual so foolish as to back up such a proposition. The Germans, the Americans, and all other colonists who come to Brazil bring up children who are Brazilians, and not citizens of their fathers' country. The United States could no more "protect" the Amazon countries against Brazil, and Germany could no more take and keep Rio Grande do Sul, than either of them could take and keep one of the Australian states or the Transvaal—or any other state wholly impossible of attack. I added that I was certain I expressed the unanimous feeling of my countrymen when I said that our most earnest and cordial wish was that Brazil should remain united and undisturbed by any

revolutionist or separatist outbreak; that I believed that such would be the case; and that, if such was the case, that this united Brazil had before her during the twentieth century a career of progress and prosperity which very few other nations during that century could hope to parallel.

In temperate Brazil there is already a considerable settlement. The national type of the country has been definitely determined. There is no opportunity for any foreign power to take any of the land. But there is room for an enormous number of new immigrants. It cannot be too often repeated, however, that the immigrants who do best in this new country, as in all other new countries, are the farmers, the mechanics, the men prepared to work hard with their hands, and who are not afraid to live hard for a year or two. The Brazilian Government and its agents and representatives are desirous to do all they can for the immigrants. But the dislocation of home ties when men leave one country and settle in another is such that some hardship is inevitable, and in many cases there is very much hardship. Even where the great majority do well, there are certain to be some who suffer deservedly and others who suffer undeservedly. All these things should be taken into account by intending immigrants. Nevertheless, I feel that there are many millions of industrious and honest people in the Old World to whom it would be the greatest possible piece of good fortune to cast in their lot with twentieth-century Brazil.

SHAKESPEARE AT WORK

BY HAMILTON W. MABIE

IN "Shakspeare as a Playwright" (Scribners) Mr. Brander Matthews is not breaking new ground, but he is working ground comparatively new far more thoroughly than has been done before in English. Much has been written about Shakespeare as a dramatist, but comparatively little about the poet as a man experienced in acting and expert in stagecraft. This is the more remarkable because the author of "Othello" probably never thought of himself as anything else. He was a craftsman who spent his entire active life in theaters at a time when the theater was becoming a public institution, with a

recognized place in London and a precarious place in the interest of the provinces. There had been real plays before Shakespeare, but the drama was in the early stages of its development when the future dramatist arrived in London in 1586 and began his apprenticeship to an art which was to him not an art in the modern sense of the word, but a way of making a living and an intensely interesting occupation. There was no dramatic literature, because the drama was not thought of as literature; there was a considerable collection of plays which had not been published, in which nobody had any sense of individual

ownership, which formed a stock of dramatic material open to members of the companies for revision, reconstruction, and any other use in the service of the theater. This stock in trade was close at hand when Shakespeare began to use his practical knowledge of acting and the stage as a play-writer; and when he worked over several of these old plays at the beginning of his career he was doing what clever men of his craft were doing without a particle of modern literary consciousness.

He lived with actors, not with men of letters, for the very good reason, among others, that there were no men of letters in his time, because the art of writing had not become a profession. His closest friends were actors, and it is to the love and intelligence of two of their number that we owe the possession of many of the plays to-day. Acting, not play-writing, was Shakespeare's early occupation; he took up the writing of plays incidentally. He was an actor of minor though not insignificant parts; he became interested as stockholder in several theaters and became a man of considerable fortune in consequence; his income of at least six hundred pounds a year, equivalent to-day to more than twenty thousand dollars, was made up of profits as part owner of theaters, as actor, and as writer of plays. His income as a maker of plays was derived from the sale of plays, not to the public, but to the theaters: these plays were not written to be read, but to be acted; they were the property of the theater which bought them; they were not only not published, but their publication diminished their value: in most cases in which they were given to the public during Shakespeare's life they were pirated and brought out in very imperfect form. Save in the case of the two poems and the sonnets Shakespeare never thought of himself as an author; so far as possible he prevented the publication of his plays; he never corrected them in type; and he appears to have been indifferent to their future fate because, when they had been sold to the theaters, they had served the purpose for which they were written. Neither Shakespeare nor his contemporaries thought of plays as writing of permanent value; when one of the foremost dramatists of the time published his plays as "Works," a shout of laughter went up from the profession.

If these facts about conditions in the sixteenth century had been known earlier, the

world would have been spared many portentous volumes and much curious but unimportant writing. The Shakespearean plays can hardly be understood unless the reader puts behind them the background of the sixteenth century and understands the point of view from which Shakespeare's audiences looked at life, their tastes, their attitude, and the atmosphere of the century. The plays were written specifically for a London crowd of very miscellaneous people, of great vigor but of rather rude tastes, fond of adventure, credulous, by no means adverse to the shedding of blood, but rather rejoicing in blood and thunder. Miss Bateman said that Macbeth was the father of all the Bowery villains. It must be remembered, too, that the women's parts were played by boys; that the stage was not framed like a picture, as the modern stage is, but projected into the audience, and that the relations between the audience and the actors were much more intimate than to-day.

It is interesting to note also that, while many aspects of Shakespeare's work have been minutely studied from very imperfect knowledge, and that work has been made the basis of many theories of the culture, station, and occupation of the author of the plays, the indisputable evidence of his occupation or profession has, until late years, received scant attention. In dealing with Shakespeare as a stage expert we are on sure ground. He could not have been a lawyer, because his knowledge of law was the common knowledge of men of affairs in his time and was the inaccurate knowledge of an amateur; his knowledge of the art of writing plays to be acted was the professional knowledge of an expert.

This great and in many respects determining element in Shakespeare's work Mr. Matthews brings out very fully and with convincing skill. He makes it clear that the dramatist's experience in the theater was not an aspect of his work, like his familiarity with law terms, with music, with flowers, with medicine, but that it furnished the material and opportunity of his self-development, and very largely shaped the form of his work.

As Sir Henry Irving pointed out in a notable address on Shakespeare's knowledge of the stage, delivered at Princeton a few years ago, the indebtedness of the dramatist to the theater heightens instead of diminishing his genius, that transcendent vitality of imagination which transformed a crude traditional

form into art and made it a vehicle for the deepest thought and the most enthralling poetry. The "mystery of Shakespeare" ceases to be a mystery of confusion and becomes a mystery of light the moment his genius is given full credence: to the rigidly legal or critical mind he is as incredible as the skylark must be to the owl.

The poet is explained as a dramatist in this volume and is humanized, so to speak, by being anchored in a craft and identified with an occupation. The stages of his growth from a boy of genius, ignorant of the alphabet of art, to the play-writer whose early crudities are forgotten in such a piece of play-making as "Othello," are indicated so distinctly that the reader feels as if he had looked in the workshop and seen the natural aptitude of

the apprentice ripen into the skill of the master. He understands both the manner and directions of Shakespeare's growth, and his joy in the winged beauty of "Romeo and Juliet" is deepened by the sense of the close contact of the poet with the conditions of his time; it gives him a comfortable sense of companionship with the author of "Hamlet" to know that he created many rôles for individual actors precisely as Mr. Thomas creates parts for Mr. Mason, or as many rôles have been created for Coquelin and Sarah Bernhardt.

And the fellowship of the dramatist of supreme genius with the members of his craft gives us a happy glimpse of the man "in his habit as he lived;" for they seem one and all to have loved him.

THE PASSING OF THE OPIUM QUESTION

BY ELIZABETH WASHBURN

HAGUE Conferences bring to the minds of most of us the image of the little bird whose futile flutterings at the capital of the Netherlands have hitherto, for some irreconcilable reason, been wont to preface, not peace, but a period of protracted and universal discord.

Unheralded by symbol and given but scant notice in the passing press, there occurred this summer at The Hague a Conference fraught with the deepest significance to humanity, whose purpose was directly to liberate from unjust and debasing thralldom one of the potentially great nations of the earth, and indirectly to protect the remaining nations from a like fate and infection.

I speak of the second International Opium Conference, which met at The Hague July 1, to conclude upon the resolutions drawn up at the Shanghai Commission of 1909, and to further discuss and elaborate upon the convention signed at the Conference held last year at The Hague. The first Conference adjourned for the purpose of securing the signatures of the nations not represented at The Hague, with the obvious intention of putting this trade on a truly international basis.

By December 31, 1912, practically all

these signatures having been obtained, it remained for the Netherlands Government to issue invitations for the final Conference, which began July 1 and terminated its sessions on July 9 last.

This Conference marks, in fact, the final phase of the opium question. Yet its passing has stirred hardly a ripple in a world distracted by controversies on a more immediate stage. Nevertheless, it seems fair to halt and call attention to the peaceful termination of at least one dispute, which has stretched across two centuries, and for which wars have been waged and a great nation all but wrecked—and to a conference held appropriately on a site consecrated for the purpose of obtaining just such sane and peaceful solutions. Also it seems a fitting time to recall the various steps which have led to this final act.

To review the opium question is to review largely the history of Western influence and Western interference in China. This is not my purpose, further than to say that the country primarily interested, namely, Great Britain, made her initial effort to enter into trading relations with China as early as 1638, through the medium of the British East India Company. Obdurate to new channels of thought or new channels of trade,

China bitterly opposed this entering British wedge, but to no avail.

Though all trade with foreign countries was distasteful to China, opium became the paramount issue, and there are records of Chinese memorials as far back as 1799 praying for the suppression of the opium traffic. "Why do you," the Chinese Emperor very pertinently demands, "bring to our land the opium, which in your land is not made use of, by it defrauding men of their property and causing injury to their health? I find that with this thing you have seduced and deluded the people of China for tens of years past; and countless are the unjust hoards you have thus acquired. Such conduct rouses indignation in every human heart and is utterly inexcusable in the eye of Celestial reason."

And this is difficult for any school of reason to refute.

But it is not necessary to review the period of conflict which precipitated the Opium War. As all know, the British were victorious, and there followed in 1840 the Treaty of Nanking, which awarded to Great Britain many privileges for which she had long contended.

The situation between the two countries did not improve. The legitimate trade of the country was being ruined by the trade in opium, and the Chinese were helpless to enforce their laws. It needed only a pretext to precipitate another war, and this was forthcoming in the incident of the Arrow, a Chinese boat flying the British flag.

This war, if it deserves so dignified a title, was also won by the British. The Treaty of Tientsin followed in 1858. By this, still further ports were opened to trade, an indemnity was demanded, and opium was at last legitimized.

So much for China's attempt to protect her people from a poison that was undermining them root and branch.

This, in meager terms, is the story of opium in China. Sixty years ago her last barrier of resistance was broken down, and during these years the country has been saturated with the drug.

One further link in this opium chain must be referred to—the Royal Commission of 1894, which was sent out from Great Britain to study the question, in answer to a general outcry against the traffic. Unfortunately, the report of the Commission was felt to be biased, and the feeling went abroad that the gentlemen on the Commission had more sympathy for the colonies and the financial

difficulties that faced them than interest in the moral aspect of the question.

The opium question sank once more from public sight. So doubtless would it have remained until another upheaval of public conscience, had it not been for the American occupation of the Philippines. In discussing means for the elimination of the drug from the islands, introduced there by Chinese labor, the whole question started again into life.

China, encouraged by the activity of the United States, once more approached the Indian Government. Great Britain consented to reopen the matter, and President Roosevelt, impressed by the injustice of the trade and its great menace to mankind, issued invitations for an International Commission to be held at Shanghai, at which every nation affected directly or indirectly by the trade should send its representatives to discuss this nefarious traffic and devise measures for its control and elimination.

As for the United States, the calling of the Commission was the means of averting a domestic danger of appalling dimensions. The investigations at home by the American commissioner preceding the convening of the Commission in Shanghai resulted in the unexpected discovery of an opium habit of our own. It was found that we were consuming as much of narcotic drugs in the United States per capita (this including cocaine, morphine, and other habit-forming drugs) as the Chinese consumed of opium; that while, allowing a wide margin, we might use for medicinal purposes 50,000 pounds of opium per annum, we were in reality importing 400,000 pounds a year. Germany, with a population of 65,000,000, consumes 17,000 pounds a year; Austria-Hungary, 3,500 pounds; and Japan, nothing.

In fact, we found ourselves facing a situation infinitely more menacing to the Nation than plague or war, that was creeping and corrupting in ever wider circles. It being obviously wise to put our own house in order before calling attention to the condition of others, the Department of State proceeded to have drawn up a bill to prohibit the importation of opium into the United States save for medicinal purposes.

This bill was passed in February, 1909, and reported to the International Commission, at that time holding its sessions in Shanghai. At this Commission thirteen Powers were represented, and at the end of the session nine resolutions were unani-

mously agreed to by which the trade in opium and other habit-forming drugs should be placed under international regulation.

These resolutions I have condensed as much as possible, but they are worth following, for they embody the principles later elaborated upon and finally accepted at the Hague Conferences.

The first was a formal expression of sympathy in China's effort to suppress the opium evil.

The second was a recommendation that the Powers present should move their respective governments to take cognizance of China's effort to eliminate opium and to take measures in their own territories and possessions for a like suppression of the drug.

The third was a recognition that opium used for other than medicinal purposes should be discouraged and placed under rigid restrictions.

Resolution Four, introduced by the American delegation, was the most pertinent submitted, and was accepted with some reluctance.

This resolution is worth quoting in full:

The International Opium Commission finds that each Government represented has strict laws which are aimed directly or indirectly to prevent the smuggling of opium, its alkaloids, derivatives, or preparations, into their respective territories. In the judgment of the International Opium Commission, it is also the duty of all countries to adopt reasonable measures to prevent at ports of departure the shipment of opium, its alkaloids, derivatives, or preparations, to any country which prohibits the entry of any opium, its alkaloids, derivatives, or preparations.

This contains the question in a nutshell, and at a first glance would seem to solve the difficulties. But just here stands an obstruction in the form of China's treaties with Great Britain by which England's right to export opium into China is guaranteed. It was hoped that public opinion would lead England to waive this right—which, as a matter of fact, was what occurred, or, rather, England so modified her treaty that the trade should stop by degrees until at the end of ten years it should cease automatically.

Resolution Five, or the "Morphine Resolution," recognizes the increasing danger of this drug, and "urges strongly on all governments that drastic measures should be taken by each Government in its own territories and possessions to control the manufacture as well as the distribution of morphine."

Resolution Six refers to the scientific consideration of the question.

Resolution Seven, introduced by the Chinese, urges the suppression of the opium

divans in the various foreign concessions or settlements.

Resolution Eight refers to the regulation in various foreign concessions of the trade in anti-opium remedies containing opium or its derivatives.

The ninth and last resolution moves that the pharmacy laws that obtain in America and Europe be applied to all subjects under the jurisdiction of foreign concessions or settlements on Chinese soil. This is a very vital resolution to China, as the country has been flooded with quack anti-opium remedies which are largely composed of opium and spread rather than restrict the habit.

As the powers of a commission are limited, it was the desire and intention of the American delegation that the Shanghai Commission should be followed immediately by a Conference with full powers to ratify the resolutions already passed upon and to put them into immediate effect.

But it was not until December, 1911, that the first International Opium Conference met at The Hague. At this Conference the recommendations passed by the Commission in Shanghai were further discussed and elaborated, and, as previously stated, a plan agreed upon to procure the signatures of all the nations not represented, more particularly the countries of Latin America, thereby obtaining complete international co-operation.

Preceding the convening of the second and final Conference at The Hague on July 1, 1913, the Secretary of State, in his report to the President, brings the work up to date. He writes as follows:

It is gratifying to review the growth of this humanitarian, moral, and economic movement from a consultation between this Government and five or six of the great Powers of the world to one which now embraces the co-operation and has the sanction of almost the entire group of civilized states, and this in spite of the fact that it means past and future financial losses to the Powers concerned of over \$50,000,000 aggregate annual revenue. The entire movement illustrates a principle abroad in the world to-day and stamped with its approval, namely, that the peoples are now agreed that an evil such as the opium evil is never wholly national in its incidence, can never be suppressed by two nations alone, as was supposed to be the case with the Far Eastern opium traffic, but that such an evil as it appears in one state is a concomitant or a reflex of a similar evil in other states, and therefore is international in its moral, humanitarian, economic, and diplomatic effect; further, that few evils can be eradicated by national action alone, and therefore that there must be co-operation of all states directly or indirectly

interested before such an evil is mitigated or suppressed.

Since the writing of this report the final Conference at The Hague has taken place, and not only have the majority of the thirty-four signatures been secured, but nearly all of those who have signed have agreed to proceed to ratification, while the Conference put into operation the necessary diplomatic machinery for the securing of the remaining signatures and ratifications of the international convention. A formal meeting has been set at The Hague, to decide upon a date on which the convention is to go into effect.

So much for the international aspect, but it still remains for the United States to demonstrate her own sincerity by passing the necessary domestic legislation required by the terms of the convention. One of the anti-narcotic bills drawn up for the protection of the people of the United States against these subtle and destructive drugs still hangs fire in the Senate. The bills passed the House of Representatives unanimously as the Conference was in session at The Hague, and had upon that body a most beneficent effect. But if the United States proposes to remain in the foreground of this great humanitarian movement, it is to be hoped that the Senate will not much longer delay its action.

It might be well to review rapidly a few pertinent events which have already demonstrated the practical nature of this movement.

First of all, following on the heels of the Shanghai Commission, the opium farms in Macao were declared bankrupt. Two-thirds of the revenue of Macao was derived from the smoking opium which she prepared and exported into the United States. With the passage of the Anti-Opium Bill by Congress in 1909 the trade received its death-blow.

Next, the opium dens of Hongkong were closed by order of the home Government in England.

In China itself vast areas under poppy cultivation have been condemned and replaced by crops less dangerous to the common weal. More pertinent still have been the edicts issued by the Government warning officials known to be victims of the habit that a certain period would be allotted them in which to overcome their weakness, failing which the penalty would be their heads; and this drastic object-lesson has been repeatedly enforced.

As for the United States, this movement

was responsible for the discovery of conditions which, if not checked, would have led to National disaster. The unearthing of this situation was followed by the immediate passage of a prohibitive Opium Bill. Since then still more exact legislation has been devised in the shape of the anti-narcotic bill at present waiting action by the Senate—a bill drawn up for the purpose of curbing and regulating within the United States the hitherto unrestricted sale of opium and its kindred drugs.

In Europe these investigations have led to a general alarm and the enactment of more stringent laws to prevent the spread of this evil.

Most pertinent of all was the formal announcement made in the British Parliament in May, 1913, that the Indo-China opium traffic had come to an end, and that India had already put into operation new measures for the procuring of her revenue. It is not to be overlooked that by this act India has sacrificed a sum of \$20,000,000 per annum.

The main point is that the deplorable trade of a hundred and fifty years has been brought to a close. It cannot be expected that normal conditions will instantly obtain, or that a trade and vice so deeply rooted can with the stroke of a pen be eradicated. That there will be backsliding is inevitable, and doubtless a period of confusion, before the new order of things is accepted and the proper adjustment achieved.

But the fact remains that the United States has accomplished the task that she undertook, and incidentally, as concerns herself, much more than she intended. She has brought about the solution of the opium question, and she has once more demonstrated to China her sympathy and good will. China owes many debts to the United States, but in the final analysis the one to loom largest will be the action of the United States to investigate and finally rid her of the curse that for well-nigh two centuries has been working for her destruction.

Also it is not to be forgotten that, as civilization advances, so intimately and intricately do the interests of one affect the interests of all that ills can be no longer isolated. As in the human body, so in the body politic, disease in one part must affect the whole. So with opium and the great problem of China's future. As she is permitted and encouraged to advance and direct her energies along the lines of health and progress, just so much will she add to the welfare of the whole.

THE SPECTATOR

THE Hackensack is a small river whose soiled exit through the marshes between Newark and Jersey City is familiar to hosts of persons; but when, in a moment of curiosity, the Spectator asked as to its origin and upper course, no one seemed able to make a definite reply. Here, evidently, was an undiscovered country right at his door: and the Spectator became fired with the zeal of an explorer—he would disclose the hidden springs of a Jersey Nile!

The sources of rivers have always been lodestones of exploration, nor is the fascination of their quest surprising. A river sweeps by us steadily, day and night, preserving its ancient habit unconcerned through the wax and wane of families and dynasties upon its banks—an ever-living image of the immutability of law and the immortality of force. In this view size is of little importance. The type is no better preserved, the moral no more clearly suggested, in the stately onflow of a Columbia or a Danube,

“Through continents pushing its pathway forever

To fling its proud heart in the sea,”
than in the coy windings of a woodland rivulet. The larger stream interests the man of affairs because he can turn it to a more extensive service, but the smaller may teach the poet the higher lesson. In the *brooks* Shakespeare bids us find books—not in vast rivers, avenues of traffic and strife.

Over beyond the hills that look down toward sunrise on the Tappan Sea lies a broad, circular valley, rich in farms. The curving Verdrietige Hills form its northern wall, their eastern headland Verdrietige Hoek, that “Tiresome Point” of the early Dutch sailors, who found the getting by it so tedious in their slow and clumsy sloops. Westerly of the valley stand the Kakiat Ridge of the Ramapo Range, between which and the Closter Hills, near the Hudson, the young Hackensack flows southward. So much was known, but little more. Somewhere in that semicircle of rocky heights the mystery lurked; there was the place to begin a search for the source of this miniature Nile.

About the middle of the Kakiat Ridge, and high upon its wooded slope, as the Spec-

tator could see from the village green of New City, was a white patch which excited his wonder until he thought of the blossoming of buckwheat. From that direction the slender watercourse seemed to come, and thitherward he bent his inquiring steps.

Behind that field, on the very top of the ridge, he found, when he had climbed to it, a small hollow studded with mossy rocks, half drowned in black ooze, and concealed amid a jungle of alders, shinnepopple, and black birch. It is a place for early orchids and late blueberries; for birds with domestic secrets to maintain a lively sense of danger from minks; and for the moralist to wonder how things so beautiful as the little swamp holds in summer can come from shadows and mire so fetid. Behind it is a mass of rocks whence water trickles away to the north and west to feed the Ramapo; let it go. On this side the slope is lower, letting the surcharged bog filter forward until its seepage gathers by tiny changing channels into a larger one, which presently deepens into a ravine trending southward behind the buckwheat-field. Unseen springs and oozings nourish it until the water pours forth by pailfuls and then by barrellfuls. Suddenly it turns from its course along the ridge, and cascades over ledge, below ledge, down two or three hundred feet of hillside, to end in one leap, grand for so young a brook, and beautiful in its clear, sibilant veil of crystal, which half hides the red rocks underneath, and is caught in a ferny pool.

The source of the Hackensack was discovered!

This is the end of the brook’s infant glee: life begins in earnest below the cascade. It floats the ducklings of the buckwheat farmer and lends a part of itself to supply his horse-trough. Plunging under the bridge of a wagon road, it springs out again only to be detained in a roadside pool through which wagoners may drive to water their horses—spreading its banks by so doing—and then it escapes hastily down into a long ravine.

The wagon road follows the right brink of this ravine, which is filled with growing trees and is ever becoming deeper. The water can rarely be seen, but is always to be heard, gurgling down there under the thickets and

among the stones of these "dry swamp-lots" of the ancient surveys, droning an under chord embroidered by the songs of birds and insects. So for half a mile. Then the close walls of the gorge retreat and the brook steals into the open.

To tramp along this high country road, with its dilapidated stone fences and bordering of blue lobelia, golden foxglove, and many another pretty weed, with its wayside springs and occasional old houses alternating with modern thrift, was a constant pleasure. On one side were wide and prosperous landscapes, on the other a stony gulch and riotous hill pastures redolent of sweet-fern; and one could note easily how the dashing little stream—here called Crum Brook—swung eastward almost to the foot of High Tor, where, unable to pass on to the Hudson, it must turn southward across the sunny valley to its exit by the Closter Hills.

How all these names, by their linguistic parentage, and especially by their queer changes, tell us of the forefathers, and of our careless disregard of and contempt for them and their traditions! Who now calls "Hook Mountain" Verdrietige or can explain why its two peaks, Big and Little Tor, were so called? Tor is a Devonshire word for a steep hill, and this is the only instance known to the Spectator of its application in American geography: but the Verdrietige passes are still called cloves—Dutch *kloof*, a

cleft in the hills. The Indians who were found living here were a small band of Lenna Lenapes (Delawares) called Tappans, controlled by the stronger Hackensacks of the lower valley. Their spokesman in 1645 was Sessikemick, and that is almost all we know of them; yet their name is preserved in the expansion of the Hudson which Irving immortalized, and in the name of the neighboring village where André was executed. The Blauvelts, who were the earliest Dutch owners of these lands, learned from the natives to call our stream Machiqua; and another local Tappan term survives in part in the name Kakiat, the original of which, as shown by an early patent, was *kachyachtaweke*—too big a mouthful for even the guttural Dutch to manage. As far back as 1686, however, the whole upper Hackensack came to be known as Demarest's Kill, and is still often so called, after a family of Huguenot pioneers which has left a numerous progeny. The older name Crum Brook is not, however, derived from a family, but is from the Dutch *kromme*, a bend—that is, Crooked Creek.

This is only a suggestion of what a fruitful hunting-ground is this for the man who loves to delve in place names and local antiquities. All the way down the valley, which before the autumn ended the Spectator explored afoot and by canoe to the river's mergence in Newark Bay, fascinating reminiscences of men and places lent historical interest to scenes that were in themselves reward enough for an idle trampler.

THE NEW BOOKS

Charles Conder: His Life and Work. By Frank Gibson. The John Lane Company, New York. \$6.

Charles Conder has never been widely known. His life and work have now been celebrated in a sumptuous volume by Frank Gibson. One reason why Conder's work did not make more impression is that it seemed somewhat artificial and at times morbid; certainly he was too consciously romantic. Another reason was that he was not a great draughtsman. He was simply an artist possessed of astonishing powers of invention. He was a brilliant colorist; but in everything he was emphatically a decorative artist.

He was born in London in 1868. He left school when only fifteen years old because he did not want to follow his father's profession, civil engineering. He wanted to

take up art. He was always drawing anything that attracted him. When he was seventeen, he was sent to Sydney, Australia, where he joined an uncle who was a surveyor. Young Conder disliked surveying. He preferred to paint landscapes rather than to map them out. Finally he obtained a minor post on a Sydney illustrated paper and did small landscape drawing for it at ten dollars a week. Here he found sympathetic company. He migrated to Melbourne and began working at art definitely. Finally his work got into exhibitions. Then he came back to Europe and held exhibitions in London. He was especially drawn towards designing fans and drawing on silk. Nevertheless, he painted some very fine canvases just before his last illness in 1906.

The present volume introduces us to a not

unsympathetic character and to an artist who, as we note from the illustrations, seems to have painted somewhat upon the principles that Whistler followed. Conder had the decorative quality so strongly in mind that such things as the likeness of an original to the portrait, draughtsmanship, and modeling were not his strong points. What he wanted was to produce something exquisite in itself. And he did.

Fugitive (The). By John Galsworthy. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 60c.

This play, in four acts, which may be read in an hour, shows the fine craftsmanship which Mr. Galsworthy has at command in the writing not only of fiction but of plays. It is one of those studies in which, in late years, he seems to have found deep attraction—the study of the dislocated human spirit.

In this case it is the young wife who has nothing definite to bring against her husband, who is really very fond of her; but he bores her to death and they cannot get on together. So she leaves him, and in leaving him leaves everything else. The end, which comes in a restaurant at the Derby, surrounded by men who are birds of prey and women who are birds of night, is the only possible solution of the situation for women of the type of Mrs. Dedmond.

The story is dramatically told; for Mr. Galsworthy wastes neither time nor words. He seems to step out of the way, so far as mere writing is concerned, and let the play have the stage. This play is infinitely pathetic, but the result seems tragically exaggerated in contrast with the cause. The original situation is not convincingly explained. It is tiresome to be bored; but the world is filled with bored women who prefer the negative suffering of a tedious life to the misery of the broken law and the tragedy of offended morality.

Intimate Letters of Hester Piozzi and Penelope Pennington, 1788-1821. Edited by Oswald G. Knapp. The John Lane Company, New York, \$4.50.

Another set of letters from the pen of Mrs. Piozzi, never before published, would seem to promise a treat to the lovers of Boswell, and of the elegant circle of blue-stockings who enlivened the latter part of the eighteenth century by their brilliant conversation. The writer could not possibly indite dull letters, however trivial the matter of her correspondence might be; and for the leisurely reader, seated before the fire, paper-cutter in hand, there will be many moments of quiet enjoyment.

Mrs. Piozzi's friends continually figure in these pages—Mrs. Siddons, Miss Farren, the Rev. Mr. Mangin, and many others. A number of fine portraits embellish the book, notably one of a magnificently tragic babe, Cecilia Siddons, who is described as the most extraordinary of all living babies. The imminent French invasion, the perfidy of Bonaparte, and England's relations

to France fill Mrs. Piozzi's mind and heart and move her pen to eloquence. Writing of "these horrid Blasphemers," she concludes, "Carlisle and all his crew are white to Lord Byron, whose book is so seducing, so amusing and so *cheap* it will soon be in every hand that can hold one." The book was sent to her, "thinking of course it could not hurt an old woman; but," she says, "I held my crutches fast, for 'tis no fun to have them kicked from under one at fourscore—and the Scriptures *are* my crutches." Writing of financial crises, she declares, "In *my* time people would have laid down knife and fork and fallen to praying. . . . We do not now lay down even our cards."

The sprightly writer was modern in many ways, and died in 1821, at the age of eighty-two, complaining of "torpor," but still able to hold her own in conversation. Fanny Burney's estimate of her writing remains unchallenged, "wild, entertaining, flighty, inconsistent, and clever."

Prestige: A Psychological Study of Social Estimates. By Lewis Leopold. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. \$3.

What exactly is prestige? How does it arise? What gives it permanency? What is its real purpose? These are some of the problems that Mr. Leopold endeavors to solve in his unusual, informative, and well-written book. In quest of their solution he wanders through all ages, all countries, and all strata of society, taking note of the most varied social phenomena in which prestige has or has had a part, and bringing together a remarkable mass of well-known and little-known facts. His ultimate conclusion, briefly, is that prestige is essentially not a logical, moral, or æsthetic phenomenon, but a psychological one; that it has a definite end in the maintenance of true values; but that eternal vigilance is necessary to prevent it from becoming an end of itself instead of an instrument in the service of higher aims. The book is one far out of the ordinary with respect not alone to subject-matter but also to brilliancy, skill, and thoroughness of treatment.

Folk Ballads of Southern Europe. Translated by Sophie Jewett. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. \$1.50.

Miss Sophie Jewett was not only a delightful person, dear to all her friends, but her personality was expressed in her tastes and in her writing. She had a real literary gift; and she had been all her life a thorough student. Her collection of "Folk Ballads of Southern Europe" is prefaced by a very interesting Introduction, and presents a group of poetical verses which reveal both scholarship and command of literary form. Although rendering texts which were necessarily very "stiff," she succeeds in giving them a certain flexibility and charm. The material is interesting in itself, and that interest is increased by Miss Jewett's personality.

MANY INVENTIONS

SCIENCE VS. KNOW-HOW

The following story is told by the "Engineering and Mining Journal" to illustrate the value of practical knowledge when theory fails:

A certain mine decided to change its two-stage pumping system to a single lift to surface. The head was terrific, about 2,200 feet. A pump was built and installed, but the manufacturer was skeptical as to whether valves could be made to stand up. It developed that they could not: they broke their seats steadily and disastrously. Many mechanical engineers were called into consultation, who experimented and figured and analyzed the mine water and tried about every hard alloy known to science, most of the brasses and bronzes, and a large number of more complex mixtures, but not one of them was hard enough and tough enough to stand up. The valves continued their merry breaking. When the last alloy had gone to pieces, the big Swede pumpman, who had watched all the experiments modestly and patiently, judged it to be his play. "By jiminy, Ay feex heam." So he got a hide, the best leather, and he put leather facings on all those valves. The first set lasted fourteen months.

BIG ENGINEERING FEATS IN 1913

Under modern conditions the perpetual cry of all who handle tools is power, more power. The year 1913 will be famous in the annals of engineering history as witnessing the practical completion of the Panama Canal, but two other engineering feats must not be forgotten in the glamour of this great enterprise. The year has seen the completion of two of the greatest power plants in the world. The Mississippi and the Tennessee Rivers have been harnessed and will in future supply light, heat, and power to thousands of people. A bridle has been put on the Mississippi at Keokuk, and at Hale's Bar the Tennessee River feels for the first time the restraining hand of the dam. The Tennessee power station is a mere baby compared with the vast project of supplying St. Louis with 231,000 kilowatts of power from the great Keokuk dam—a work second only to the Nile dam at Assuan—but the finishing of both projects this year is noteworthy. The question must strike every one, how long will it be before every river has its power station, every town its cheap power and light?—*American Machinist*.

GERM DETECTIVES

A writer in the "Saturday Evening Post" gives a readable account of certain ways in which electricity has been employed in identifying germs, discovering adulterations in food, or in learning other facts that ordinarily must be found out by the use of the microscope or by chemical analysis. "It is," he says,

"possible to determine very accurately on a dial or gauge the electrical resistance of an article, or, roughly speaking, to send a known amount of electricity into a substance and record how much gets through. One scientist has found that different kinds of bacteria have each their own degree of resistance to a current. Accordingly he takes a batch of bacteria, puts it in a solution of albumen and sugar, and then sends a current through the solution. Prior tests have given him the amount of resistance to be expected from each kind of bacterium, so he can tell from the resistance which germ is in the solution. As many kinds of bacteria can be recognized with difficulty under ordinary methods, this new method of testing promises to afford a short cut."

Another use of electricity is that by which a Canadian scientist detects the adulteration of maple sugar by granulated sugar. "Granulated sugar is similar to maple sugar, the only difference being in the flavoring and coloring matter in maple sugar, and as this is only a small fraction of the quantity, the identification of granulated sugar in maple sugar is not easy. He has found that pure maple sugar and adulterated maple sugar each has a different electrical resistance, and so tries out samples with a current of electricity. If the sample does not show the proper resistance figure, this is proof that it is adulterated."

A SPEED-LOCK FOR MOTOR CARS

A new device by which a mechanical check may be put on excessive speed, and which will also curb "joy riding" and other unauthorized borrowing of cars, is described in the New York "Sun":

A new device has been invented by S. Keith Evans, which places the control of his car in the hands of the owner under all conditions. It is a speed-lock, which operates in combination with a speedometer. It consists of an adjustable dial which can be set at any speed from zero to seventy-five miles an hour, and locked in that position with a Yale key. When the speed indicator of the speedometer reaches a figure corresponding with the figure shown in the slot of the speed-lock a connection is formed which "cuts out" the ignition spark and stops the motor. But as soon as the speed is reduced below the point at which the dial is set, the spark is released and the motor starts automatically.

When a car equipped with this device is left standing at the curb the speed-lock is placed at zero, which makes it impossible to start the car until unlocked with the same key. When locked at from five to ten miles an hour in a garage attendants may move the car about on first speed without the slightest possibility of "joy riding."

BY THE WAY

Memphis has had a "Prosperity Dinner" at which a map was shown indicating that Memphis is the center of a territory which is at present the most prosperous of any section of the United States. Tennessee, Mississippi, northern Louisiana, northern Alabama, southern Kentucky, southeastern Missouri, and eastern Arkansas are comprised in this favored region.

"A comical little six-foot cyclone" is the characterization by a writer in "Harper's Magazine" of the violent wind that assails the traveler in Western Australia. "It was a singular phenomenon," he says. "Its force and activity were amazing. . . . Its path no man could guess. It darted, it swerved, it circled. When at last it vanished, a thick red mist, high in the air, we laughed heartily." This storm, it seems, is locally known as a "willy-willy"—a name strangely akin to that of the similar air-disturbance in Patagonia called a "williwaw."

Methods of fire prevention have been so greatly improved recently on the Pennsylvania Railroad that the fire loss of the road in 1913 was the smallest, with the exception of one year, in the past thirty-five years.

Persian rugs, according to the writer of a book on Persia, are all made on hand-loom, and the patterns are read out to the weavers, most of whom are children. "Two green and four black forward, three to the left for grounding, six blue," etc., the master weaver calls out from the carefully drawn design he holds, or perhaps from memory. The children answer him in their piping voices, "Two green and four black to place, have eaten six blue," and so on, as they deftly twist and knot the fine wool into patterns that will eventually captivate the buyer in some Eastern bazaar or Western department store, and delight the users for perhaps a century or longer.

There are two reasons, says the "Harvard Lampoon," why some people don't mind their own business. One is that they haven't any mind, the other that they haven't any business.

A simple device for keeping the feet warm is an electrical rug that has lately been put on the market. It is ready for immediate use by merely "plugging into the circuit" either in a vehicle or in the house, and, it is claimed, is much more convenient than various complicated foot-warmers heretofore used.

"He that taketh away his neighbor's living slayeth him." "He that defraudeth the workman of his hire is a blood-shedder." These admonitions, closely paralleling the workingman's eleventh commandment, "Thou shalt not take thy neighbor's job," are quotations from the apocryphal Book of Ecclesiasticus, an appreciation of which appears in the "Christian Regis-

ter" from the pen of James T. Bixby. Dr. Bixby considers the book "immensely superior to Ecclesiastes."

The Chief Engineer of the Public Service Commission of New York is the highest-paid official of the State. He now receives a salary of \$20,000, which is twice as much as that paid to the Governor and \$5,000 a year more than the Mayor of New York City receives.

A report from St. Petersburg says that Mme. Marie Breshkovsky, the famous Russian patriot, who recently tried again to escape from her imprisonment in Siberia, has been sentenced to solitary confinement for eighteen months.

Joseph Jefferson might have been pleased if he could have attended a recent auction sale in New York City and heard the appreciative bidding for one of the pictures that he amused himself by painting in moments of leisure. The canvas was called "Sunset" and was knocked down for \$135.

Jerusalem, despatches state, is to be lighted by electricity, to have a public water supply, and to be connected with Bethlehem by a tramway. The improvements are to be made by a French company. These changes, like the introduction of steam ferries in Venice, are disconcerting to lovers of the picturesque, but will no doubt be of advantage to the city's inhabitants.

Pittsburgh had a phenomenally hot January day on the 29th of the month. The temperature reached 72 degrees. One death from heat prostration was reported.

Mr. Frederick W. Vanderbilt's fine yacht Warrior recently ran on an uncharted shoal on the coast of Colombia and was wrecked, but without loss of life. Mr. Vanderbilt hopes that the Government will take a lesson from the disaster and, with the opening of the Panama Canal, extend its surveys to the Caribbean and Gulf coasts, for the safety of mariners.

"One of the causes of yesterday's decline in the price of butter," says a New York daily, "was the receipt of 2,000 boxes of Argentine fresh creamery butter, the forerunner of what will likely prove to be many other similar shipments." Thus the American breakfast table adds another product of the antipodes to its list of delicacies.

A subscriber, writing in appreciation of the pictures of bird refuges published in The Outlook for January 8, says that "in the generous and great work done by Mr. McIlhenny in this matter he has been aided in a large degree by Mr. Charles Willis Ward, of Detroit and New York. . . . Mr. Ward has been largely responsible for the establishment of 'The Outdoor World and Recreation,' a magazine to pro-

mote the preservation of bird life." Mr. Ward himself has written us in a most generous spirit giving a tribute to Mr. McIlhenny, and welcoming the support of the readers of *The Outlook* for the cause of the birds.

The Central Congregational Church of Brooklyn is to try the experiment of requesting women to remove their hats at the Sunday service. The theaters set a good example in this direction several years ago, and it is now a rare thing for a woman to obstruct her neighbors' view by wearing her hat in a theater.

Senator Gore, of Oklahoma, advocates the purchase by the Government of oil lands in Oklahoma, and the building of a Government pipe line to convey oil to the seaboard for use by the navy as fuel. The navy now uses 30,000,000 gallons of oil a year and in a few years will need 125,000,000 gallons, and Senator Gore urges the Government to provide for an economical supply of the fuel.

The cost of building steamers during the past year declined between $7\frac{1}{2}$ and 10 per cent in the United Kingdom, according to "Shipping Illustrated," mainly through the reduction in the price of material and the anxiety of some builders to secure new orders for the near future.

New York City is not without its expert counselors as to municipal regeneration. The Department of Social Betterment of the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities publishes a pamphlet giving the names of prominent men and women who are prepared to lecture on what amounts to "A Social Programme for Greater New York." The topics embrace "Labor Problems," "Housing, Congestion, and Rents," "Health," "Education, Public and Private," "The Leisure Time Problem," "The Social Problem," "City Planning," "Politics and Government." The syllabus for the lectures indicates a thoroughly well informed and progressive attitude on the part of the organizers of this bureau for the discussion of civic questions.

Greece is ambitious to become a naval power. Its programme for the next five years calls for the building of two battle cruisers, two other cruisers of 10,000 tons each, 25 torpedo-boats, 6 submarines, 12 gunboats, and 20 hydroplanes.

In the new building now being erected by J. P. Morgan & Co. in New York City a peculiar feature is that the three upper floors are suspended from the roof. It was desired by the late J. P. Morgan that there should be no posts on the first floor, which will be used for banking rooms. This could be obviated only by having great trusses extending entirely across the building at the roof level, from which suspends the steel that will bear the weight of the three upper floors.

Another notable building in New York is an apartment-house now in process of construction, which will have one apartment consisting of

thirty-four rooms and eight baths. This will be the largest apartment in the city. It would seem to nullify one of the reasons-for-being of an apartment—the simplifying of the problem of household management and the reduction of the number of servants required.

The Macon (Georgia) "News" seems to have been deceived into reprinting Moore's famous poem, "The Time I've Lost in Wooing," containing the well-known lines,

"My only books were woman's looks,
And folly's all they've taught me,"

as an original anonymous contribution. And the "Evening Telegram" of New York City fell into the same trap. The "Telegram" in excusing itself says that its office Homer must have been nodding while his shears worked.

Cardinal Merry del Val (whose full name is Raphael Merry del Val, a form that seldom appears in the newspapers, which seem to discern a certain unecclesiastical joy in the surname alone) has been appointed archpriest of St. Peter's at Rome, a post held by the late Cardinal Rampolla. The new archpriest is a native of England, having been born in London in 1865, but is of Spanish origin, his father having been secretary to the Spanish Embassy in London.

Emperor William has been emulating the example of Mr. Gladstone in using the ax as a promoter of health. On the advice of his physician, he engaged for several days in splitting and sawing wood on the Imperial estate surrounding Sans Souci Palace.

Speaking of Barcelona, Spain, a writer in the London "Academy" says: "On leaving, I brought with me confused memories of a town where there was no gold and so much bad silver that every coin had to be rung on a stone before it was accepted; of crowded Ramblas, where handsome, vivacious men and women walked to and fro under the trees, and where one could buy attractive birds in cages, or lovely flowers; and of a dark, plain woman singing on a tawdry stage a song as harsh and outlandish as her voice—and as enthralling"—this Iberian enchantress having been heard in one of the many cabarets of the city.

A sarcastic correspondent of a sportsman's journal, satirizing the tall stories of some hunters, says that out in Utah, his State, the game wardens crossed the mallard duck with the black bass. "The issue," he goes on, "is something great: the offspring from this union, instead of being a blessing to sportsmen, has proved to be a nuisance to the public. While in the water they will not take an artificial bait; while on the wing they fly too high in this altitude. They not only roost in the young peach trees at night, breaking the slender limbs down, but feed on the young alfalfa, causing a great financial loss to the farmers in the vicinity of the lake shore."

COMMERCE AND FINANCE

A WEEKLY ARTICLE BY THEODORE H. PRICE

"Bond Distribution—Its Problems, Process, and Machinery" will be the title of the next of Mr. Price's weekly articles on financial subjects to appear in The Outlook. Its publication has been postponed to make way for a discussion of the many interesting phases of current economic news.—THE EDITORS.

THE ECONOMIC ASPECTS OF CURRENT NEWS

THE Reduction in the Bank of England Rate on January 29 is the most important recent financial news.

It is now 3 per cent against 5 per cent on January 1. Coincidentally, similar reductions have been made in the rates of all other great European banks as well as in New York. Responsively, the quotations for consols, rentes, and other premier interest-bearing securities have risen sharply. Consols advanced $1\frac{1}{8}$ in one day, which is an unusual fluctuation for this staid issue, the price of which is a highly sensitized gauge of the value of credit throughout the world. The reduction in the rate follows the precedent of 1907–8. During the autumnal panic of 1907 it was 7 per cent; by March 19, 1908, it was 3 per cent. Cause and effect were the same then as now. The concurrent activity in trade and the security markets had absorbed the supply of credit. It became scarce. Securities yielded. Alarm ensued. Money became almost unobtainable. Then trade gave way, and credit, being disengaged of commerce, was to be had at lower rates and sought employment in the purchase of interest-bearing obligations of undoubted integrity, such as bonds, bills of exchange, and gilt-edged commercial paper. It is always the same cycle of events in the same sequence. Securities give way first because they can be instantly sold. They recover first because they can be instantly bought. Trade cannot be immediately checked because, for the most part, it involves long-time contracts. Once halted, it cannot instantly rearticulate its dislocated members. The year 1908 was one of rising stock markets but slow trade. This summary of economic history is trite. The deduction suggested for 1914 may be resented by the "Sunshine Clubs" now forming all over the country, but even with sunshine time is required for growth, and too much sunshine may prematurely ripen the crop and reduce

the yield. Reconstructive influences are at work, but impatience may really hinder their operation. A slow convalescence generally makes for vigor. The moral influence upon world finance of the Bank of England rate, what it means and why it means so much, will be explained hereafter in these pages. The subject is not, perhaps, as well understood in America as it should be, especially since the Federal Reserve Board Bill, when effective, will provide us with a system not dissimilar.

The Railways and the Inter-State Commerce Commission have not as yet had a meeting of minds in regard to an advance in rates. To those who have noticed the tendency of every agency of government to acquire more power for itself, the recent reports of the Inter-State Commerce Commission suggest a desire, perhaps subconscious, to so impress Congress that it will give to the Commission control over the issuance of railway securities.

This seems to be indicated by the report on the St. Louis and San Francisco Railroad, which is extremely severe and has induced two Senators to declare themselves unequivocally in favor of Government ownership of railways.

In deciding that certain payments to, or pro-rating with, small railways owned by large shippers and operated within their own plants as a matter of convenience, were in effect rebates, and therefore illegal, the Commission says:

In this general connection it may safely be assumed that no substantial part of the well-informed and reflecting public would deny to the owners of the railroads of the country a reasonable return on their investments; nevertheless, before they may fairly ask the general public to share further in carrying their burdens, it is manifest that the railroads must themselves properly conserve their sources of revenue by making every service rendered by them contribute reasonably to their earnings.

This having been done, the Commission, upon an adequate showing of the need of additional revenues, will not shrink from the

responsibility of sanctioning such measures, including even a general advance in rates, as may be required to bring reasonable prosperity to railroads, so far as this may be accomplished under rates and charges that are reasonably just, alike to shippers and to the carriers.

These remarks are *obiter*, and the implication is plain. Moreover, public opinion seems strongly in favor of giving power to the Commission to *visé* the issuance of railway securities, upon the theory that a moral guarantee of their value will be thereby secured.

Nevertheless the question involves many difficulties. It is doubtful whether they can be resolved except by a law providing for Federal incorporation.

The railways are at present the corporate creatures of the States. Recent decisions of the Supreme Court incline toward a somewhat more vivid recognition of States' rights. The decision of the Supreme Court in the celebrated case of *Paul versus State of Virginia*, that the business of insurance is not commerce, and therefore not subject to Federal control, has been reaffirmed. Would the issuance of securities by State corporations be commerce? If not, can the Inter-State Commerce Commission be constitutionally empowered to control it? It might take years of litigation to answer this question. Meantime Federal corporations for inter-State commerce and simple laws to which they must conform as a condition of existence provide a really workable solution of a problem otherwise extremely complex.

Disintegration versus Combination and their respective economic advantages to all concerned are questions upon which much new light is being shed by recent experience. Fifteen years ago, when everything was being consolidated, it was almost unanimously agreed that "economies of management, made possible through consolidation" (I quote a prospectus of 1900), would be in the interest of the public and of the properties consolidated. As a matter of fact, the earnings of many consolidations fell below the aggregate earnings of their integers before combination.

Of late there have been a good many "disintegrations," and the disintegrated factors are in the aggregate worth more and earning more than they did in combination.

What is to be learned from this? Is it not that we entirely overlooked the one-man

influence in management? The German farmers have a proverb which runs, "The eye of the master fattens the cattle."

Is it not true, when any enterprise gets so large that personal attention from a responsible head to all of its activities becomes impossible, that forthwith some of them function imperfectly and become inefficient? All sorts of mechanical substitutes for this personal attention have been devised. Innumerable typewriters have been employed to record the reports of auditors and supervisors and efficiency experts, but in the last analysis it has been proved that the influence of a vivid and enthusiastic *man* was necessary to make a business really successful; where this couldn't reach atrophy was likely to develop. The expense of all this vicarious supervision has also proved to be a great drain upon the income of any enterprise, however well organized.

The other day I signed a voucher for sixty-four cents which was an overcharge repaid by a great corporation. There was attached to it a budget of correspondence that evidenced an expenditure for typewriting, stenography, official auditing, and attention estimated at about five dollars. This estimate assumes that there are few stenographers who turn out an average of more than fifty communications a day. If their wages are fifteen dollars a week, the writing of each letter costs five cents, to say nothing of paper, envelope, machine, office rent, and the salary of the man dictating the letter. Since we are talking about economics, I take the liberty of suggesting real economy in the matter of letter-writing. I have heard of men who saved ink by not dotting "i's" or crossing "t's." A very substantial saving might be made in many American offices by omitting the writing of unnecessary letters. Young America's ideal business man is pictured sitting at his desk with a stenographer at his elbow and an automobile waiting to convey him to the golf links. This conception is responsible for much bad diction and a good deal of corporate inefficiency.

President Wilson is said to be his own stenographer, and the quality of his "dictation" is apparent in more ways than one.

New York City is seemingly in the travail of a delivery of great grafters to justice which promises to involve men hitherto regarded as protected from prosecution by political influence that was almost omnipotent. Disclosures are expected that will be more sensational

than anything since Tweed's day. In his "Republic" Plato says:

Until philosophers are kings, and the princes of this world have the spirit and power of philosophy, and political greatness and wisdom meet in one, cities will never cease from ill—no, nor the human race, as I believe—and then only will our state have a possibility of life, and see the light of day.

It is evident that the difficulty of providing cities with good government is not a new one.

In a city of five million people it is hard to arouse and keep alive individual civic pride and a feeling of responsibility for government. The place is too big for any one to be conscious of a proprietary interest in it.

This is one of the strongest arguments against the overgrowth of cities. Their inhabitants become dead to any sense of local patriotism. The economic consequence is that the cost of living is increased by the imposition of graft and urban congestion is checked because urban life is made more expensive. Paris is losing in population. London, even including the metropolitan district, has almost ceased to grow. In the interest of National character and welfare, it is to be hoped that New York will not become any larger. Its polyethnic population already presents problems with which government by democracy is almost unable to cope.

Competition in Service Rather than Price is a result of the Governmental supervision of business established and in prospect. Railways are not allowed to cut rates, and in an effort to get business they compete by offering better facilities and greater luxury.

To acquaint the public with these, advertising is necessary. There never was so much railway advertising as at present. Phœbe Snow belongs to a class of young ladies much sought after by railway managers to-day.

The Federal Reserve Bill will shortly make the competition between banks largely one of service rather than of interest rates and deposit balances. The rate of interest in each Federal reserve district will be almost uniform. The rate of exchange that banks may charge will be fixed by the Federal Reserve Board. Banks cannot plead that they are "down to their reserve" as an excuse for refusing a loan to a deserving customer, because he will know that his paper can be rediscounted by the district bank and the reserve replenished.

As in the case of the railways, we shall probably find the banks advertising quicker collections, more security, and less fondness for the word "No"—a negative which, in the opinion of many borrowers, is used with too much frequency by bank officers.

As to merchandise, the Supreme Court has construed the Sherman Law as not only forbidding agreements to raise or maintain prices, but also as inhibiting any reduction in price that will jeopardize the success of competitors. Here again the effect is to establish a uniformity of cost to the public and to make an increase in business conditional upon quality, service, and advertisement. Lest it may be thought that these lines were written with the advertising pages of *The Outlook* in mind, I feel it necessary to add that they are not intended to stimulate

Extravagant Expenditure in Advertising, which in many cases represents a serious economic waste. It is said that in some businesses twenty per cent of the cost of the goods to the public is advertisement.

From the "Home and Farmstead," an agricultural paper of Athens, Georgia, I clip the following:

The newspapers of New York City received five million dollars last year for advertising the different makes of automobiles. What must have been the grand total for all kinds of advertisements! The lightest whisper of the big advertiser sounds like thunder in the newspaper office.

I have no means of verifying the "five million dollar" part of this statement. "Millions" is a word that it is easy to write and it stimulates the imagination; but I believe that the suggestion that most newspapers "bow the knee" to the advertising Baal is unjust. That people should think otherwise simply emphasizes the great need of discriminating judgment in the use of display advertising.

Where a thing is novel, elaborated publicity may be necessary for its introduction, but a demand that has to be sustained by this method cannot be a real one, and the needs of society are already so numerous that it hardly seems wise or necessary to increase them by forced draught.

Iteration is the most essential element in the art of advertisement. The public mind may become benumbed by multi-colored pictures and display.

Samantha said, "I don't believe in nagging

my husband, but I feel that it is my duty to keep some things constantly before him."

He who is able to supply a real need by the sale of a good article or superior service needs chiefly to link his name and what he sells so definitely in the public mind that they become reciprocally suggestive.

He thus utilizes the association of ideas, which is such an aid to memory; and the main object of advertising is to make people remember.

A certain brand of smoking tobacco and a bull are so definitely associated in the public mind that every bull in the country has become an advertisement of that tobacco. The words "Uneeda" and "Keen Kutter" are worth millions of dollars to the corporations with whose products they are identified. I believe that if John Jones made good towels and simply kept the legend

JOHN JONES
GOOD TOWELS

intensively before the public by publication in appropriate newspapers or magazines for a year, he would find himself able at the end of that time to sell all the towels he could produce. It is not to be forgotten that the extension of the parcel post will enormously widen the field that may be developed by this sort of advertising. The study of applied psychology in relation to advertising is indeed fascinating, and it is to be hoped that some one more competent than myself may discuss it in *The Outlook*. I am quite sure that Professor Münsterberg could write most interestingly upon "The Reflexes of the Advertiser's Appeal."

A Government-Built Railway. The news that the Senate has passed a bill appropriating \$40,000,000, to build a railway in Alaska one thousand miles long, has attracted very little attention in the East. In the Pacific States it has created great enthusiasm. It has yet to pass the House, but, as

it is reported to have the President's support, it is likely to become law. It is remarkable that a measure which bespeaks such an extension of paternalism in the policy of our Government should be almost unheeded in the older and presumably the more conservative section of the country. There is food for thought and reason for concern in our National insensibility to such a radical extension of political dominion over economic enterprise.

An Inter-State Trade Commission whose duty, according to the President, will be "to smell around all the time in search of rats," is provided for by one of the Administration bills now before Congress.

Those who shape this legislation should remember that there is developing a distinct and healthy reaction against any further extension of the inquisitorial powers of Government.

Former Attorney-General Wickersham has delivered one broadside against the creation of such a commission as an invasion of Constitutional rights, and the venerable Edgar M. Cullen, former Chief Justice of the State of New York, in a recent address to the State Bar Association upon "The Decline of Personal Liberty in America," said:

Unless I am utterly mistaken, there is now a strong tendency in courts, in legislatures, and, worst of all, in the people themselves, to disregard the most fundamental principles of personal rights. When I was young, liberty was deemed to be the right of the citizen to act and live as he thought best, so long as his conduct did not invade a like right on the part of others. To-day, according to the notion of many, if not most people, liberty is the right of part of the people to compel the other part to do what the first part thinks the latter ought to do for its own benefit. The only way in which our own conduct can be secured against the inroads of paternal or socialistic government is to be alert to protect the conduct of others and to condemn violations of private rights equally, whether the violation is of our rights or of those of others.

That it should be necessary to discuss the "Decline of Personal Liberty in America" in such vigorous language is indeed an ominous sign of the times.